United Nations E/CN.7/2001/2

Economic and Social Council

Distr.: General
22 December 2000

Original: English

Commission on Narcotic Drugs
Forty-fourth session
Vienna, 20-29 March 2001
Item 4 of the provisional agenda*
Follow-up to the twentieth special session of the General Assembly: examination of the single biennial report of the Executive Director on the progress achieved by Governments in meeting the goals and targets for the years 2003 and 2008 set out in the Political Declaration adopted by the Assembly at its twentieth special session

First biennial report of the Executive Director on the implementation of the outcome of the twentieth special session of the General Assembly, devoted to countering the world drug problem together

Report of the Executive Director

Summary

The present report, prepared pursuant to Commission on Narcotic Drugs resolution 42/11 of 1 December 1999, provides an overview of the efforts of Governments to meet the objectives and target dates set out in the action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, devoted to countering the world drug problem together, held in New York from 8 to 10 June 1998. The report presents an analysis of the drug situation and the efforts of Governments to implement the action plans and measures adopted, drawing on information provided by Governments through biennial questionnaires and on other sources available to UNDCP. The report should be examined in conjunction with the replies submitted by Governments and presented, at the request of the Commission at its inter-sessional meeting held on 18 September 2000, in conference room papers E/CN.7/2001/CRP.1-6. The report is structured as follows: action taken by the Commission; global and regional trends, as requested by the Commission in its resolution 42/11; and reporting on the action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session.

* E/CN.7/2001/1.

V.00-60434 (E) 080101 050201

Contents

Chapter		*Paragraphs*	*Page*
I.	Introduction	1-2	4
II.	Action by the Commission on Narcotic Drugs	3-6	4
	A. Mandate of the Commission emanating from the twentieth special session of the General Assembly and action by the Assembly at its fifty-fourth session	3	4
	B. Action by the Commission at its forty-second session: adoption of guidelines for reporting on the follow-up to the twentieth special session of the General Assembly	4-6	5
III.	Overview of global trends	7-32	6
	A. Cannabis: the most abused drug	14-16	7
	B. Amphetamine-type stimulants: emerging drugs of the twenty-first century	17-22	7
	C. Concentration of illicit opium poppy cultivation in two countries	23-24	8
	D. Declining Andean coca cultivation	25-27	9
	E. Producer-transit-consumer countries: spreading abuse in developing countries	28-32	9
IV.	Overview of regional trends	33-75	10
	A. Central, south and south-west Asia	33-41	10
	B. South-east Asia and the Pacific	42-46	12
	C. Africa	47-53	13
	D. Latin America and the Caribbean	54-61	15
	E. Western Europe	62-66	16
	F. North America	67-75	17
V.	Reporting on the action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session	76-274	18
	A. Action Plan for the Implementation of the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction	87-114	20
	B. Action Plan on International Cooperation on the Eradication of Illicit Drug Crops and on Alternative Development	115-170	30
	C. Measures to promote judicial cooperation	171-191	40
	D. Action Plan against Illicit Manufacture, Trafficking and Abuse of Amphetamine-type Stimulants and Their Precursors	192-217	44
	E. Control of precursors	218-254	50
	F. Countering money-laundering	255-274	55

Tables

1. Analysis of responses by region 18
2. Involvement of different sectors in developing and implementing a national strategy for drug demand reduction 22
3. Areas in which research results were published or research was carried out during the reporting period 23
4. Extent of prevention activities 25
5. Treatment and rehabilitation interventions 26
6. Reducing the negative health and social consequences of drug abuse 29

I. Introduction

1. At its twentieth special session, devoted to countering the world drug problem together, the General Assembly adopted a Political Declaration, the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction and measures to enhance international cooperation to counter the world drug problem, including: (a) the Action Plan against Illicit Manufacture, Trafficking and Abuse of Amphetamine-type Stimulants and Their Precursors; (b) measures for the control of precursors; (c) measures to promote judicial cooperation; (d) measures to counter money-laundering; and (e) the Action Plan on International Cooperation on the Eradication of Illicit Drug Crops and on Alternative Development (resolutions S-20/2, annex, S-20/3, annex, and S-20/4 A to E, respectively).

2. The Political Declaration constitutes a high-level commitment to address all elements of the drug problem at both the national and international levels. It sets clear goals and targets to be achieved in 2003 and 2008. It emphasizes the importance of a balanced approach to reduce drug abuse, eliminate illicit supply and counter drug trafficking. The accompanying Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction confirms that demand reduction is an indispensable pillar of the global response to the drug problem. The momentum built up at the twentieth special session of the General Assembly has been maintained and further enhanced within the United Nations. In April 2000, for example, the Executive Director of the United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) was invited to brief the Security Council on the drugs situation in Afghanistan, the first time that the drug issue featured on the agenda of the Council. That was evidence of the tangible way in which the world now sees drugs as a major security threat to all. In September 2000, world leaders gathered at the Millennium Summit of the United Nations resolved to redouble their efforts to implement the commitments undertaken at the twentieth special session.

II. Action by the Commission on Narcotic Drugs

A. Mandate of the Commission emanating from the twentieth special session of the General Assembly and action by the Assembly at its fifty-fourth session

3. In paragraph 20 of the Political Declaration adopted at its twentieth special session, the General Assembly called upon all States to report biennially to the Commission on Narcotic Drugs on their efforts to meet the goals and targets for the years 2003 and 2008 and requested the Commission to analyse those reports in order to enhance the cooperative effort to combat the world drug problem. In its resolution 54/132, entitled "International cooperation against the world drug problem", the General Assembly requested the Commission, with the support of UNDCP, to continue its work expeditiously, within the established time-frames, on the elaboration of guidelines to facilitate biennial reporting by Governments on the progress achieved in meeting the goals and targets for the years 2003 and 2008, as set out in the Political Declaration. As requested by the General Assembly in its resolution 54/132, the Secretary-General submitted to the General Assembly at its fifty-fifth session a report on the implementation of the outcome of the twentieth special session, including on the Action Plan for the Implementation of the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction (A/55/126). Pursuant to a request made by the Assembly in its resolution 54/132, the Executive Director of UNDCP submitted to the Commission at its forty-third session a report on the Action Plan for the Implementation of the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction (E/CN.7/2000/3) and a report on the follow-up to the Action Plan on International Cooperation on the Eradication of Illicit Drug Crops and on Alternative Development (E/CN.7/2000/6).

B. Action by the Commission at its forty-second session: adoption of guidelines for reporting on the follow-up to the twentieth special session of the General Assembly

4. At its forty-second regular session, held in March 1999, the Commission examined its new mandates emanating from the twentieth special session of the General Assembly and adopted resolution 42/4, entitled "Guidelines for reporting by Governments on the implementation of the Global Programme of Action and on the progress achieved in meeting the goals and targets for the years 2003 and 2008, as set out in the Political Declaration adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session". At its reconvened forty-second session, held on 30 November and 1 December 1999, the Commission adopted resolution 42/11, entitled "Guidelines for reporting on the follow-up to the twentieth special session of the General Assembly". The guidelines contained in resolution 42/11 had been brought to its attention by the inter-sessional working group, established pursuant to resolution 42/4, paragraph 1, that met in Vienna in June and September 1999.

5. In its resolution 42/11, the Commission adopted a unified single questionnaire that included the information required for reporting on the action plans and measures adopted by the Assembly at its twentieth special session, on the understanding that the questionnaire would be streamlined and amended during the reporting period. In that resolution, the Commission asked Members States to transmit to the Executive Director, by 30 June 2000, their replies to the questionnaire. On the basis of those replies, the Executive Director would prepare, for submission to the Commission, a single biennial report for consideration at its forty-fourth regular session in 2001. The Commission called on the Executive Director to submit to Member States his biennial report no later than three months prior to its review by the Commission. The Commission indicated that the report should cover the difficulties encountered and the efforts of Governments in meeting the objectives and target dates agreed upon by the General Assembly, on the basis of a comprehensive, confidential and balanced treatment of information covering all aspects of the drug problem. It should also contain information on global trends, organized by region. UNDCP was called upon to draw on its expertise and experience gained from its global technical assistance programmes and on information collected under various relevant questionnaires. The Commission decided to submit a report to the Assembly in 2003 and 2008 on the progress achieved in meeting the goals and targets set out in the Political Declaration.

6. The present report has been prepared in response to Commission resolution 42/11, drawing on the questionnaires submitted by Member States. However, as of 30 June 2000, the date set by the Commission for Governments to submit their questionnaires to the Executive Director, the Secretariat had received replies from only the following 15 States and territories: Belarus, British Virgin Islands, Colombia, Ecuador, Finland, Grenada, Lebanon, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zealand, Republic of Korea, Switzerland, Tajikistan and Ukraine. At the time of the first inter-sessional meeting of the Commission, held on 18 September 2000, 61 questionnaires had been received. In response to a request made by the Commission at that meeting, a second reminder was addressed to those States which had not yet submitted their questionnaires. By 8 November 2000, 81 questionnaires had been received, on the basis of which the present report was prepared. Since then, additional questionnaires had been received by the Secretariat.[1] Should the Commission so wish, additional replies received after 8 November 2000 will be included in an addendum to the present report, for consideration at its reconvened forty-fourth session, to be held in December 2001. At its second inter-sessional meeting, on 1 December 2000, the Commission was informed that, in view of the submission of many of the questionnaires more than four months after the requested date, the Executive Director would not be in a position to circulate the biennial report to Member States three months before the regular session of the Commission, as called for in resolution 42/11. In future, the timely submission of the questionnaires by a large number of Member States would provide more time to the Secretariat for the preparation of the report and its timely circulation to Member States.

III. Overview of global trends

7. No State can be effective unilaterally in tackling the world drug problem, and all States, in different degrees, suffer the adverse consequences of drug abuse and trafficking. Particularly vulnerable, however, are States with a weak social and institutional fabric, or in which political events, domestic instability and conflicts have contributed to the collapse or weakening of State structures and controls. Rising drug abuse in countries or regions with weak State institutions and mechanisms of control has proven extremely difficult to contain because of the fragmented and ill-prepared health-care services and the shortage of trained personnel. As a result, many have fallen victim to exploitation by drug-trafficking organizations that threaten the health of men, women and children and undermine the rule of law and, ultimately, the vitality of the whole community.

8. The illicit drug phenomenon should be viewed within the context of contemporary economic, social and political developments. Changes in the world political economy and advances in technology over the past decade have had a significant impact on the scope and nature of the drug problem. The past decade has seen strides in banking deregulation and the privatization of State-owned businesses. Although such reforms were intended to encourage investment and economic development and to improve the efficiency of local regulations, they also leave economic systems vulnerable to criminal organizations, particularly in countries where the regulatory environment is in an embryonic state. In ways not dissimilar to business enterprises, criminal organizations involved in illicit drugs have responded to opportunities created by a globalizing market economy.

9. Criminal organizations have set up complex trafficking routes, involving many different transit countries, means of transport and concealment, in their efforts to evade law enforcement authorities. Using various routes that traverse Europe and Asia and the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, criminal groups operating in south-west Asia supply the bulk of the European heroin market, while those operating out of south-east Asia supply expanding regional markets and, to a lesser extent, the market in North America; drug-trafficking networks supply a global market with cocaine originating from the Andean countries.

10. In recent years, coordinated international efforts have gradually narrowed the field of operation of traffickers. Concerted and sustained action has kept drug traffickers on the defensive, as Governments have targeted the leaders of the major drug-trafficking organizations. Programmes to eradicate illicit crops through alternative development and initiatives to monitor and prevent the diversion of precursors have caused major shifts in illicit cultivation, processing and refining operations. Effective law enforcement operations have fragmented the large cartels that once dominated the cocaine trade. Assistance has been provided to strengthen the capacity of law enforcement agencies to attack the drug supply at critical points along the chain from source countries to consumer markets, that is, from production (cultivation) and processing (drug refining) through transit (along shipping and trafficking routes) to the wholesale distribution network. Improved cooperation between law enforcement authorities has led to some of the largest drug seizures, forcing traffickers to constantly shift the routes used in the transport of illicit drugs and reducing the flow of supplies to the market.

11. While international cooperation during the past two years has shown that positive results can be achieved through the sustained and joint efforts of committed Governments, the challenge of countering the world drug problem remains formidable. Even after suffering major setbacks, drug-trafficking networks, the criminal equivalent of large transnational organizations with drug distribution centres and money-laundering on every continent, have retained the ability to corrupt and subvert even relatively strong societies.

12. The world drug problem touches millions of lives in both developed and developing countries; its most negative impacts are felt among the most vulnerable and marginalized groups of society. Drug abuse and addiction have adverse implications for public health; drug abuse is now a major vector for the transmission of infectious diseases, in particular the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), hepatitis and tuberculosis. Drug injecting has been identified in more than 136 countries, of which 93 report HIV infection among injecting drug users. The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) estimates that the global proportion of HIV infections due to contaminated injection equipment was from 5 to 10 per cent in 1996. Because addiction is such a

complex and pervasive health issue, overall strategies must encompass a committed public health approach, including extensive education and prevention efforts, treatment and research.

13. Drug abuse has become a truly global phenomenon. Among the plant-based drugs, the illicit consumption of cannabis products—marijuana and hashish—is most widespread. Far more serious health effects are associated with the abuse of heroin and cocaine. In terms of geographical spread, heroin is also among the leading substances, with abuse of heroin found in almost all countries. Cocaine abuse is still strongly concentrated in the Americas, in particular North America. The strongest growth rates, however, are being reported from countries in Europe, South America and Africa. The most rapid rise in abuse in recent years has been that of synthetic drugs, in particular amphetamine-type stimulants (ATS). In several Asian countries, methamphetamine is the most abused substance after cannabis.

A. Cannabis: the most abused drug

14. The ubiquity and extent of wild growth of cannabis and the emergence of its cultivation with a high content of tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) using hydroponic techniques make it difficult to assess the potential availability of cannabis. Illicit cultivation and wild growth of cannabis continue to be widespread, occurring in all continents. In addition, indoor cultivation of cannabis with a high THC content using hydroponic technologies is a rising concern, particularly in countries in Europe and North America. Estimates of the extent of cultivation remain unclear at the country level or worldwide. Annual seizures of cannabis herb, which fluctuated widely at the global level during the 1980s, fell from an average of 7,000 tons during that period to an average of 3,000 tons during the 1990s. Countries that recorded particularly high quantities of seizures of cannabis herb during the 1990s include Mexico, the United States of America, and, to a lesser extent, South Africa, Paraguay, Colombia, India and the Netherlands.

15. While the cannabis plant is widespread on all continents, the main sources of cannabis resin continue to be Morocco and countries in south-west Asia, in particular Pakistan. Europe accounts for the bulk of seizures, and is the primary consumer area. Seizures in western Europe have reflected a steady rise since the 1980s, and were particularly high in 1998, reaching a record level of 734 tons. The countries primarily responsible for the large seizures in western Europe during the late 1990s were Spain and, to a lesser extent, France, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

16. In east and south-east Asia, cannabis resin remains insignificant. In the Americas, cannabis resin continues to be primarily available in Canada. The bulk of cannabis resin seizures in Africa and Asia are made, respectively, in Morocco and Pakistan.

B. Amphetamine-type stimulants: emerging drugs of the twenty-first century

17. In 1994, UNDCP informed the Commission of an alarming global upward trend in the illicit manufacture and abuse of ATS, a trend that required a concerted response from the international community. The spread of ATS has affected all social classes. The number of countries reporting abuse of and trafficking in ATS has risen, indicating a spread of the problem in geographical terms. Although the level of seizures of ATS is still lower than that of cocaine or heroin, ATS seizures almost quadrupled from 1990 to 1998. Abuse and trafficking, in volume terms, have become concentrated in eastern and south-east Asia, western Europe and North America.

18. The most striking features of the 1990s were the increased abuse of and trafficking in ATS in the countries of east and south-east Asia. While the region accounted for 22 per cent of global seizures of ATS in 1990, its share in global seizures almost doubled to reach 41 per cent in 1998, reflecting increased levels of production, trafficking and abuse in the region. The only other region with similar growth rates was western Europe. ATS seizures in western Europe rose from 20 per cent of global seizures in 1990 to 38 per cent in 1998. While increasing strongly over the 1990s in absolute terms, seizures in North America accounted for only 18 per cent of global ATS seizures in 1998, up from 14 per cent in 1990.[2]

19. A troubling development during the 1990s was the growing popularity of methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) (Ecstasy), which has emerged as

an important and lucrative share of the international illicit drug market. MDMA first gained popularity during the 1980s and particularly the 1990s in the context of cultural change that swept the young generation in Europe. It has retained its popularity and developed an international cult following, as reflected from the Internet sites that provide detailed instruction on how to manufacture and use MDMA "safely". The perception of that drug as relatively benign by its users makes efforts to suppress its illicit manufacture and abuse correspondingly difficult. Most of the MDMA available on the European drug market and in Latin America and the Caribbean is manufactured in clandestine laboratories in Europe.

20. Methamphetamine and other ATS are the stimulants of choice in several parts of the world, particularly in the United States. In Australia and in most countries of western Europe, ATS are the second most widely consumed group of illegal drugs after cannabis. In Japan, about 90 per cent of all seizure cases and of all drug-related arrests in 1998 involved methamphetamine. In the south-west of the United States, methamphetamine has an important share of the illicit market. ATS have been on the rise not only in developed countries. In Thailand, methamphetamine displaced heroin as the most heavily abused drug in the late 1990s.[3]

21. Synthetic drugs, in particular the relative ease of manufacture of such drugs, allow individual trafficking organizations to control the whole process from manufacture to sale on the streets. There has been a clear shift towards illicit manufacture, away from diversion of ATS from licit markets. Efforts to counter the illicit manufacture of ATS should continue to focus on measures to prevent the diversion of the precursors and essential chemicals required for such manufacture, and on targeting illicit laboratories. In 1998, more than 80 per cent of global seizures of ephedrine, the key precursor for methamphetamine manufacture, were made in south and south-east Asia, the main region for the manufacture, trafficking and abuse of ATS.[4]

22. Following dramatic increases in ATS abuse during the early 1990s, two of the three main ATS markets, western Europe and North America, are showing encouraging signs of stabilization, or even decline. However, at the global level, illicit supply of and demand for ATS are still showing upward trends. In east and south-east Asia, illicit production, trafficking and abuse are rising. The region seems to be emerging as a prime source for both ATS end products and their chemical precursors.[5]

C. Concentration of illicit opium poppy cultivation in two countries

23. For the first time in recent history, global production of drugs such as heroin and cocaine is no longer growing, but shows signs of stabilization and even decline. Production of opium poppy and coca leaf is concentrated in an ever smaller number of countries. While during the 1980s, illicit cultivation of the opium poppy and production of opium occurred in over nine countries, they are currently mainly concentrated in just two countries: Afghanistan and Myanmar. Production in Afghanistan rose to 79 per cent of global opium production in 1999, while in Myanmar, it was reduced to 15 per cent, reflecting the shift of world opium production from south-east to south-west Asia. To a much lesser extent, illicit cultivation also takes place in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Colombia, Mexico and Viet Nam. Illicit production of opium, the raw material for the manufacture of morphine and heroin, declined in 2000 by at least 17 per cent, and was about 15 per cent lower than in 1994.

24. Most significantly, in the late 1990s, former large-scale producers of opium, such as Thailand and Pakistan, achieved substantial reductions in output. Both countries are now net importers of opiates. The same is true for Lebanon and the Islamic Republic of Iran. Opium production was successfully eliminated in the early 1990s in Lebanon, and in the Islamic Republic of Iran a decade earlier. While Turkey, because of its geographical position, has remained an important transit country, the shift in production from illicit to licit opium production in the 1970s has eliminated illegal Turkish opium from international drug markets. The re-emergence of opium poppy production in Egypt in the second half of the 1990s was successfully curtailed at an early stage. Also, though there is a potential threat, large-scale opium cultivation has not appeared in the States of central Asia.

D. Declining Andean coca cultivation

25. One of the most striking developments in 1999 was the decline in the Andean coca crop. In spite of a marked expansion of cultivation in Colombia, overall Andean coca cultivation totals are at a new low. Dramatic declines occurred in Peru and Bolivia, formerly the world's two principal coca producers. Of the 106,500 hectares under coca cultivation in Peru in 1995, only 51,000 hectares remained in 1998 and 38,700 hectares at the end of 1999, representing a drop of two thirds. During the same four-year period, the Government of Bolivia eradicated coca cultivation by more than a half, from 48,600 hectares to 21,800 hectares. Coca cultivation and drug trafficking were almost completely wiped out from the Chapare region in Bolivia. Coca cultivation in Peru and Bolivia at the end of 1999 was at its lowest point since 1986. They stand as tangible proof of what can be achieved when committed Governments work effectively towards a common goal.

26. The shift in coca leaf production can be attributed to a number of factors. In the early 1990s, a fungus destroyed significant amounts of the coca harvest in Peru. Secondly, clandestine flights that transported coca from Peru to laboratories in Colombia were successfully curtailed in the second half of the 1990s. Another important factor was the improved control of precursors and essential chemicals needed for the manufacture of cocaine. Bolivia, Colombia and Peru played a critical role in the international tracking programme, known as Operation Purple, for the control of potassium permanganate. The dismantling of some of the large Colombian drug cartels (Medellín and Cali) contributed to a shift in production. The successor organizations did not have the kind of infrastructure that would have allowed them to organize the logistics to transport large amounts of coca from neighbouring countries to Colombia. Of possibly decisive importance was the commitment of the Governments, in particular those of Bolivia and Peru, to eradicate illicit cultivation through alternative development, while the ongoing civil conflict in Colombia was a factor in the domestic expansion of coca leaf production.

27. Global coca leaf and cocaine manufacture continued to fall in 1999 by 7 per cent, to levels 20 per cent lower than in 1992 and 1993. In spite of the marked expansion of coca cultivation in Colombia in 1999, overall Andean coca cultivation is at a new low as a result of the dramatic declines in Bolivia and Peru. The potential annual availability of cocaine to the world market in 1999 was estimated at about 765 tons, with Colombia accounting for 67 per cent of the potential world cocaine output, while Peru and Bolivia were reduced to 21 per cent and 12 per cent, respectively.

E. Producer-transit-consumer countries: spreading abuse in developing countries

28. The apparently neat division between producer, transit and consumer countries has clearly broken down since the late 1980s. At least 134 States and territories reported that they faced a drug abuse problem in the 1990s. Three quarters of all States reported abuse of heroin and two thirds abuse of cocaine, with drug abuse becoming a serious health and security concern and a major impediment to economic and social progress in many developing countries.

29. Twenty years ago, heroin was unknown in most countries of south, south-west and central Asia, and opium was a traditional drug controlled by social customs. Today, the situation has changed radically. It is estimated that a significant share of the opium production from Afghanistan was consumed within the region, far outstripping abuse of opiates, in per capita terms, in the so-called consumer countries, that is, developed countries. Countries such as Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran have the highest heroin addiction rates in the world. The authorities in Pakistan estimate that there could be nearly 1.5 million heroin addicts in that country, whereas in the early 1980s there were only a few. It is believed that there are half a million heroin addicts in the Islamic Republic of Iran. Rates of heroin abuse are also increasing in the States of central Asia. As a direct result of illicit production in and trafficking from Afghanistan, the number of heroin addicts in the region exceeds that of western Europe and is still on the increase. In the whole of western Europe, there are approximately 1.2 million heroin addicts and, in the United States, between 800,000 and 1 million.

30. A similar situation exists in south-east Asia, where a large share of opiates is distributed and

consumed in producer or transit countries in the region, either in the form of opium or as heroin. In 1998, it was assumed that 57 per cent of the annual opium production of the Lao People's Democratic Republic was consumed locally. The national opium addiction rate in the country for people aged 15 and above was 2.1 per cent, the second highest opiate addiction rate in the world after that in the Islamic Republic of Iran. The Asian Harm Reduction Network estimates that there are as many as 200,000 opiate drug abusers in Viet Nam, of which 50,000 are believed to inject heroin. Most of the over 86,000 drug addicts in Myanmar consume opiates. In China, there were 681,000 officially registered drug addicts in 1999. China suffers from the transit of opiates from Myanmar, which accounts for the increase in abuse. By the end of 1999, out of a total of 17,316 reported cases of HIV/AIDS infection in China, those infected through intravenous injections of drugs accounted for 72.4 per cent.[6]

31. Similarly, a number of Latin American countries, both coca-producing countries and their neighbours, are faced with cocaine abuse problems that are at levels similar to those of western Europe. In a study conducted by the United States Office of National Drug Control Policy, global consumption of cocaine was estimated at 650 tons, distributed as follows: the United States, 300 tons; South America, 150 tons, including 50 in the form of coca leaf; Europe, 100 tons; and the remaining smaller markets, including Australia, Canada, Mexico, South Africa, the Russian Federation and those in Asia and Central America, a combined 50 tons.[7]

32. Furthermore, several developing countries have to address the new threats posed by synthetic drugs, in particular ATS and the so-called Ecstasy-type drugs (methylenedioxyamphetamine (MDA), methylene-dioxyethylamphetamine (MDE), MDMA etc.), produced mostly in developed areas. During the past decade, drug abuse in several developed countries has stabilized or decreased significantly, while increasing in developing countries. A case in point is ATS. The overall upward trend of abuse of ATS in Europe that occurred during the early 1990s seems to have stopped. Efforts to curb illicit demand, in particular among young people, and improved cooperation on the supply side, notably in the field of precursor control, appear to have had an impact on the trend. Closer cooperation among national competent authorities and with the International Narcotics Control Board prevented the diversion of several large consignments of precursor chemicals from countries in Europe and Asia. Signs of stabilization, or even decline, in North America and Europe give hope that the spread of ATS abuse can be contained. The situation in east and south-east Asia is very different. In contrast to North America and Europe, a continued upward trend in ATS manufacture, trafficking and abuse has affected the region since the early 1990s. Traffickers continue to expand the volume and geographic scope of their operations. During 1999, 75 per cent of all seizures of stimulants were effected in east and south-east Asia, with 19 per cent of them accounted for by Thailand and 66 per cent by China. Western Europe accounted for 12 per cent and North America for 11 per cent of global seizures in 1999. The region has over the past few years emerged as a major source for the diversion of precursor chemicals, not only for the clandestine manufacture of ATS within the region, but also for operations in Europe and the Americas. In terms of trafficking and abuse, the region constitutes a major ATS market that is becoming increasingly integrated. Its chemical industries have the capacity to supply all the necessary precursors for the illicit manufacture of ATS.

IV. Overview of regional trends

A. Central, south and south-west Asia

33. According to the UNDCP annual opium poppy survey, Afghanistan experienced a record increase in the area under opium poppy cultivation in 1999, reaching 90,583 hectares, an increase of 42 per cent over the previous year. The increase in the production of illicit raw opium was even more dramatic than the expansion in the areas under cultivation. Production of raw opium is estimated to have jumped from 2,700 tons in 1998 to 4,565 tons in 1999, a staggering increase of 70 per cent. During 2000, cultivation decreased by 10 per cent to 82,172 hectares. The opium output in 2000 dropped to 3,275 tons, compared with the 1999 record level of 4,565 tons. In 2000, opium production remained 22 per cent above the 1998 levels, although the area under cultivation was almost 30 per cent higher than in 1998. Most of the fluctuation in production was due to bad weather. Some of the decline was also attributed to eradication and alternative development efforts in the limited areas where UNDCP conducted its project activities.

34. Yields from opium poppy cultivation in Afghanistan have remained substantially higher than in any other opium-producing areas around the world, with an estimated average of 50 kilograms per hectare (kg/ha) and 90 kg/ha in irrigated areas. In 2000, however, because of a serious drought, average yield dropped to 36 kg/ha, resulting in a decrease in overall production. In comparison, the estimated average opium yields in Myanmar and Thailand are relatively modest, at 10 kg/ha and 11.25 kg/ha, respectively, and even less for countries like the Lao People's Democratic Republic, with 5 kg/ha. The high yield in Afghanistan presents a major challenge for future alternative development programmes.[6]

I. Global impact of Afghanistan

35. The record production of 4,565 tons of opium in Afghanistan in 1999 brought the estimated total worldwide production of illicit opium to nearly 6,000 tons, a 60 per cent increase over the total of 3,750 tons in 1998. Since Afghanistan accounted for 79 per cent of global opium production in 1999, the decrease observed in 2000 does not represent a substantial change in the global availability of opium. Because of considerable price fluctuations over the years and the ease of storage, it is believed that large quantities of opiates are stockpiled in Afghanistan. Following the large opium harvests in 1999 and 2000, the stocks might further swell, creating additional pressures to find new markets. Another concern is that Afghanistan may be poised to become also a leading producer of heroin, unless the ban on production of opium is implemented and the control of precursors strengthened.

36. Western Europe is by far the most lucrative destination for opiates from Afghanistan. Traditionally, large quantities of opium and morphine from Afghanistan are trafficked through Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran to Turkey for processing into heroin on its onward journey to western Europe, over the so-called Balkan route. That route has come under considerable pressure, particularly as a result of the success of the Islamic Republic of Iran in making large seizures. The northern route through the States of central Asia has also gained in importance. Reportedly, much of the opium stockpiled in northern Afghanistan is transported through the long, porous borders with Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan to the Russian Federation and Europe. That points to the emergence of new heroin production centres and the surfacing of new drug-trafficking organizations in the transit countries.

37. The situation in Afghanistan, notably during the past two years, characterized by record levels of illicit opium poppy cultivation and opium production, constitutes a threat to peace and security in the region and beyond, undermining the political, economic and social stability of neighbouring countries, in particular the States of central Asia, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan. Afghanistan has become the main source of opiates to those neighbouring countries and to both eastern and western Europe. It is also the main source of heroin found in some countries of the Arabian peninsula and eastern Africa. The Security Council, following a briefing by the Executive Director, expressed its concern over the threat to the security of the region posed by the increased production and trafficking of opiates from Afghanistan. UNDCP worked closely with the "six-plus-two" group (consisting of the six countries bordering Afghanistan plus the Russian Federation and the United States) to address the threat posed by the illicit production of opium to the security of the region. Following a technical meeting in May 2000 attended by representatives of the "six-plus-two" group and the major donor countries, a high-level meeting held in New York in September 2000 endorsed a regional plan of action with the objective of increasing cooperation between the countries bordering Afghanistan.

2. Security belt around Afghanistan

38. To contain the alarming flow of drugs out of Afghanistan, UNDCP has initiated the establishment of a so-called security belt around Afghanistan, with the dual aim of reducing drug trafficking from that country into neighbouring countries and of stopping precursor chemicals used in heroin manufacture from reaching clandestine laboratories. The approach combines national and regional programmes designed to strengthen the drug control capacity of countries neighbouring Afghanistan in intercepting the illicit drug traffic from that country. National projects include strengthening border controls and cross-border cooperation, improving the analysis of information and training customs and border personnel in effective techniques for searching vehicles, containers and cargoes. To that effect, UNDCP launched three border control programmes in Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and

Uzbekistan, whose supporting activities include legal assistance, precursor controls, demand reduction programmes and advocacy. In Tajikistan, UNDCP is also assisting in the establishment and operation of a national drug control agency to enable the Government to combat drug trafficking. Two other programmes to strengthen national law enforcement capacities as a tool for cross-border cooperation are under way in the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan.

39. According to information available to UNDCP, the total global seizures of opiates in 1999 amounted to 847 tons in opium equivalent, the largest portion of which originated from Afghanistan. Of those worldwide figures, 564 tons, or about 67 per cent, were seized in the region. The Islamic Republic of Iran held the absolute record with 492 tons or about 58 per cent of worldwide seizures, followed by Pakistan with 66 tons, or 8 per cent, China with 55 tons, or 6 per cent, and Turkey with 46 tons, or 5 per cent. In comparison, all western countries combined (excluding Turkey) seized only 73 tons, or 9 per cent of the worldwide total, during the same period.[9] In 1999, the Islamic Republic of Iran continued to make the largest opium seizures, accounting for more than 80 per cent of seizures worldwide.[10] In many countries, the interdiction efforts came at a very high cost. In particular, the Islamic Republic of Iran has paid for its success with the loss of over 2,000 law enforcement officers since 1990. Nonetheless, the high rate of seizures in the region is a strong indication that programmes to reduce illicit drug trafficking are most effective when organized close to the source of illicit production, along the border with Afghanistan. By providing those front-line countries with better training, information and equipment, seizure rates could be increased with relatively modest financial inputs, while the loss of human lives could also be prevented. Moreover, the assistance being provided to the States of central Asia is already yielding dividends. In Turkmenistan, opium seizures increased from 1.4 tons in 1998 to 4.6 tons in 1999, and, in Uzbekistan, from 1.9 to 3.3 tons. In Tajikistan,[11] the provision of 2.6 million United States dollars of assistance by the Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention of the Secretariat (ODCCP) for the establishment of a drug control agency led to a 70 per cent increase in drug seizures in 2000. The increase in seizures of heroin was even more striking, with a rise of 450 per cent to reach 1.5 tons, equivalent to the amount seized in the United States in recent years. The main trafficking routes from Afghanistan into Tajikistan have been seriously disrupted.

40. To give effect to the concept of a security belt, UNDCP has established a number of regional coordination mechanisms to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of regional law enforcement activities. In 1999, UNDCP initiated a programme to establish a drug control coordination unit at the secretariat of the Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO) in Tehran. ECO will serve in the region as the main medium for the training of law enforcement agencies, including personnel from the customs services and prosecutors. Also building on the traditional linkages between them, the five States of central Asia, under the aegis of UNDCP, signed a memorandum of understanding to strengthen cooperation between their national authorities. That has led to the sharing of intelligence, the promotion of controlled deliveries and the exchange of information on drug abuse and trafficking. Furthermore, a memorandum of understanding on cooperation in drug control was recently concluded between Armenia, Georgia, the Islamic Republic of Iran and UNDCP.

41. A recent initiative was the International Conference on Enhancing Security and Stability in Central Asia: An Integrated Approach to Counter Drugs, Organized Crime and Terrorism, held in Tashkent in October 2000. The Conference, sponsored by ODCCP and the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), adopted a declaration endorsing a set of priorities for cooperation between the States of central Asia in the field of drug control, organized crime and terrorism.

B. South-east Asia and the Pacific

42. In 1999, total opium poppy cultivation in south-east Asia (in the area known as the Golden Triangle) fell to about 113,000 hectares, the lowest level since 1988; yield fell by 35 per cent, with a potential production of about 1,000 tons of opium in 1999. The decline, due to bad weather and eradication and control measures adopted by the Governments concerned, was most significant in Myanmar, the second-largest opium producer after Afghanistan. In 1999, illicit cultivation in Myanmar dropped by 45 per cent to 89,500 hectares, with a potential yield of 895 tons of opium.

43. Illicit cultivation in other countries in south-east Asia remained small. The Lao opium poppy survey for the 1999-2000 season indicated that opium poppy cultivation in the Lao People's Democratic Republic fell by 30 per cent to 19,052 hectares, compared with the 1998 estimate of 26,800 hectares. The already marginal production in Thailand further fell by 38 per cent to 702 hectares, with a potential yield of 8 tons of opium, less than a fraction of 1 per cent of potential production in south-east Asia. In Viet Nam, poppy cultivation remained at a low level of a few hundred hectares in 1998 and 1999.

44. South-east Asia accounts for less than 10 per cent (1993-1999 average) of global cannabis herb seizures, the bulk of which continues to take place in the Americas, followed by Europe and Africa. Nevertheless, illicit traffic and distribution of cannabis herb within the region is widespread. South-east Asia remains a major source of cannabis herb. According to the International Narcotics Control Board, significant illicit cultivation of cannabis continues to occur in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the Philippines. Cambodia is increasingly becoming the major source of the illicitly cultivated cannabis found on the market in countries in east and south-east Asia and elsewhere.[12] Cannabis resin is not a drug of choice in east and south-east Asia, where reported seizures of that drug type continue to be insignificant. The amounts seized have been significantly lower than, for example, in most countries of western Europe. East and south-east Asia do not appear to have a problem of cocaine abuse. Australia, however, recorded an increasing trend in seizures and abuse during the 1990s. Japan also recorded regular cocaine seizures, though quantities remain low.

45. The abuse of and trafficking in ATS, mainly methamphetamine, but also Ecstasy-type substances, are spreading throughout east and south-east Asia, and the countries where ATS have become the most commonly abused drugs include Japan, the Philippines and Thailand. Clandestine manufacturing is reported to be concentrated in the Myanmar-Thailand border area, once exclusively known for heroin refining. In most countries of the region, seizures of ATS reached unprecedented levels in 1999. Seizures in China, Japan, Myanmar, the Philippines and Thailand rose dramatically during the past decade. In China, but also in Thailand and Japan, seizures of ATS, mainly methamphetamine, reached record levels in 1999. China accounts for almost 50 per cent of global seizures of ATS by volume, and the entire region of east and south-east Asia and Oceania account for more than two thirds of the global total. China made large seizures in 1999 and 2000, with over 16 tons of methamphetamine seized in 1999 and 17 tons in the first six months of 2000, and 10 tons of ephedrine in the same period.[13]

46. The manufacture and abuse of ATS, in particular methamphetamine, have also been reported by Australia and New Zealand. ATS seizures in Australia have decreased in recent years.[14] Australia continues to be an important destination of illicitly manufactured MDMA originating from western Europe. A recent sharp increase in seizures and the number of abusers of that drug type has been reported in some countries of the region, such as Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia and Singapore.

C. Africa

47. The main drug of abuse in Africa is cannabis, produced largely from domestic sources. During the past decade, Africa has assumed an important role as a transit point for cocaine and heroin. Southern and western Africa have become significant trans-shipment points for cocaine and heroin to European countries and the United States. Both the role played by west African nationals as heroin and cocaine couriers from south-west Asia and South America, through various African airports, to Europe and the role played by west African criminal groups in drug trafficking at the global level have facilitated the expansion of drug trafficking and abuse on the continent. Several African countries were experiencing the abuse of stimulants and depressants. Southern Africa has been targeted as a market for methaqualone, principally in the form of mandrax tablets. Many Governments, with insufficient knowledge of the extent of the drug problem, are confronted with growing drug abuse and related criminal activities, which they have to address with limited expertise and competing demands on resources.

48. As a result of armed conflicts in several parts of Africa, in particular western and central Africa, State structures and institutions required for governance and drug control have collapsed. Re-instituting a drug control capacity, including treatment, rehabilitation and the social reinsertion of ex-combatants, especially

children engaged in local conflicts, should be considered within the framework of post-conflict reconstruction in several African States. Drug abuse and trafficking remain intrinsically linked to poverty eradication and human security.

49. Another concern is the availability of psychotropic substances for self-medication through vendors and over-the-counter sales without prescription. Assistance should be provided to African Governments to strengthen the capacity of national institutions to monitor and regulate national drug distribution channels. Pharmacies, chemist shops and patent medicine stores should comply with the provisions of domestic laws, and failure to comply should be sanctioned. The capacity of the national competent authorities in Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania is being strengthened to better control the supply and distribution of licit narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, in cooperation with the Board and the World Health Organization (WHO). To strengthen the drug control capacity of national institutions, the focus of UNDCP assistance in southern Africa is on control measures, judicial development and cooperation, as well as demand reduction. Legislative assistance is being provided to 19 States in southern and eastern Africa in implementing the international drug control treaties, in particular the provisions of the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988,[15] through the training of more than 121 investigators, prosecutors, judges and magistrates, in cooperation with the Southern African Development Community (SADC).

50. The interdiction capacity of law enforcement agencies in African countries should be strengthened, in particular the strategic points being used for the transit of illicit drugs. UNDCP, in cooperation with the Customs Cooperation Council (also known as the World Customs Organization), has been engaged in a programme to strengthen the capacity of the major ports in eastern and southern Africa. The project obtained its first results with two major drug seizures made in October 2000. In Durban, South Africa, a seizure of 11 tons of cannabis resin concealed in sea-freight containers was part of a 13-ton shipment originating from Karachi, Pakistan. A second important seizure of mandrax concealed in a container was made in Dar es Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania. That positive outcome reflects the benefits derived from the provision of training, advice and equipment to port control teams in Dar es Salaam, Durban, Maputo and Mombasa (Kenya), completed in 2000. A port unit is evolving in Djibouti, and the provision of training and equipment will be completed in early 2001. A second phase of the project is being finalized to cover other ports in the region.

51. The regional programme for west Africa is being developed by UNDCP, in close cooperation with the African Anti-drug Programme (AADP) of the European Commission, to further strengthen the structures for drug control coordination at national and regional levels, as called for in the regional drug control action plan adopted by the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) in 1997. The programme will also strengthen demand reduction and law enforcement measures at both regional and country levels. To that end, national drug control strategies were elaborated in Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Togo, with the joint support of UNDCP and AADP. During 2001, training will continue to be provided, as in 2000, to national drug control coordinators from central African States and to selected judges and magistrates from west Africa.

52. As a reflection of the political commitment of authorities in the region, the ministers of justice, finance and interior of the 16 ECOWAS member States, representatives of the ECOWAS secretariat, the Central Bank of West Africa, the Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering and UNDCP decided to establish a regional Intergovernmental Task Force against Money Laundering. UNDCP will be supporting the initial operations of the regional Intergovernmental Task Force and providing country-level assistance to government, banking and private sector officials in selected countries.

53. The Organization of African Unity (OAU) Declaration and Plan of Action on Drug Abuse Control and Illicit Drug Trafficking in Africa continues to serve as the cornerstone of cooperation at the continental level and remains an essential tool for drug control action in Africa. There is, however, a need for greater involvement of the African regional economic organizations, in particular ECOWAS and SADC, in the work of the OAU drug control focal point.

D. Latin America and the Caribbean

54. Faced by the ultimate loss of its major sources of coca with the successful eradication efforts in Bolivia and Peru, traffickers in Colombia have steadily moved cultivation to the south and south-west of the country. Through that displacement, Colombian traffickers expanded the coca crop. The total Andean coca crop at the end of 1999 stood at 183,000 hectares, the lowest figure since 1987, despite the increase of approximately 20 per cent in coca cultivation in Colombia in 1999. Colombia accounted for two thirds of coca leaf production and a potential production of about 520 tons of cocaine. In spite of the increase, the reduction in Bolivia and Peru brought the total potential production of cocaine from the Andean region in 1999 to 765 tons, a five-year low.

55. Opium production in Latin America is mainly destined for the heroin market in the United States. While Mexican opium has, for decades, traditionally gone to the United States, Central American countries, such as Guatemala, virtually disappeared as significant producers of opium during the 1990s. During the same period, Colombia emerged as a supplier of heroin produced from domestically grown opium poppy. Neighbouring countries such as Peru and Venezuela have reported some small-scale production of opium, and this potential threat calls for careful monitoring. Although illicit opium poppy cultivation in Colombia and Mexico is small by global standards, estimated at less than 6 per cent of the world total, production in those countries is important regionally, and has replaced some of the south-east Asian heroin in the United States market. Most of the heroin identified in the United States in 1999 was of Colombian or Mexican origin. Authorities in both countries have stepped up efforts to eradicate illicit opium cultivation.

56. Law enforcement agencies have successfully targeted the illicit trafficking of cocaine, removing record quantities from the illicit market. During 1999, 88 per cent of the cocaine seized was in the Americas, particularly in the United States, with 37 per cent, and Colombia, with 18 per cent of global seizures. Cocaine seizures increased in Europe to 12 per cent of the world total in 1999.[16] Bulk consignments of cocaine continue to be dispatched to North America and western Europe by sea, often in containerized freight, but also as deck cargo. Consignments to North America pass through the eastern Pacific or through the Caribbean. Central American and Caribbean States are frequently used as points of transit, and working alliances between Colombian, Mexican and Caribbean criminal groups provide greater trafficking options for accessing illicit markets in the United States. Cocaine from the producer countries is also increasingly trafficked by land routes into the Southern Cone countries of South America. Brazil and Venezuela, for example, not only have a growing domestic demand, but are used for the trans-shipment of consignments by air and sea to Europe and South Africa. The Iberian peninsula continues to be an important point of entry, as does the Netherlands, though sea routes to the Baltic and eastern Mediterranean are increasingly utilized as back-door points of entry to western Europe, feeding growing markets in central and eastern Europe.

57. In the Caribbean region, seizures of cannabis, the only illicit drug produced in the region, have declined from about 125 tons in 1994 to 73 tons in 1998. Governments have increased their efforts to eradicate cannabis. Jamaica, the main exporter of cannabis from the region, destroyed over 588 hectares of fully grown plants and seized over 44 tons of cannabis in the first eight months of 1999. However, while cannabis remains the first drug of abuse in the region, cocaine was the priority concern for law enforcement agencies.[17]

58. According to the UNDCP Caribbean Drug Control Coordination Mechanism (CCM), about half of the total cocaine production leaving South America for world markets, amounting to 310 tons, move through the Caribbean. About 35 per cent of the cocaine arriving in the United States, or 140 tons, and 65 per cent of cocaine arriving in Europe, or 65 tons, go through the Caribbean, making the Caribbean region a major transit hub for cocaine. The Caribbean is to some extent also used as a transit hub for heroin, mainly from Colombia. The increased use by traffickers of go-fast, high-powered speedboats and encrypted cellular telephonic communication with land-based collaborators creates particular difficulties for law enforcement services. Drug trafficking and abuse have increased the vulnerabilities of the Caribbean States, leading to the manipulation, and hindering the sound functioning, of their democratic, economic and financial institutions.[18]

59. At the regional level, the 1996 Plan of Action for Drug Control Coordination and Cooperation in the

Caribbean, adopted in Barbados in 1996, serves as the framework for cooperation both between countries in the region and with the donor community, in particular the European Union. A review of sectoral progress in implementing the recommendations of the Barbados Plan of Action, held in May 2000, concluded that initiatives for regional cooperation, such as the Caribbean Financial Action Task Force, targeting money-laundering, and the Caribbean Customs Law Enforcement Council, for customs cooperation, were more firmly in place than many national efforts, partly because of limited resources at the national level. Progress in regional drug control cooperation includes the establishment of a regional clearance system for small vessels, with pilot workstations now started in Saint Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago and at the Joint Intelligence Office in San Juan, Puerto Rico. Progress has also been made in legal cooperation in the Caribbean. The Law Ministers of the Caribbean Community have agreed upon a Caribbean treaty on mutual legal assistance in criminal matters, including provisions on taking statements from persons, examining sites, locating objects, facilitating the appearance of witnesses, executing searches and seizures, as well as tracing, seizing, restraining and confiscating the proceeds of crime. It is based on the United Nations Model Treaty on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (resolution 45/117, annex) and the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (resolution 55/25, annex I).

60. At the subregional level, UNDCP was instrumental in promoting common methods and standards for epidemiological surveillance under a project based on the memorandum of understanding on subregional drug control cooperation between Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Peru, Uruguay and UNDCP. The initiative will support production of the first national household and school-based surveys in Argentina, Peru and Uruguay, and help modernize drug abuse information systems throughout the region to allow for cross-country comparisons of prevalence, incidence and trends.

61. During 2000, subregional drug control cooperation in Central America also improved. The Permanent Central American Commission for the Eradication of the Illicit Production, Traffic, Consumption and Use of Drugs and Psychotropic Substances continued to play a catalytic role in furthering regional cooperation in drug control. In July 2000, its member States signed the Declaration of Guatemala, which defined modalities for cooperation in reducing the supply of and demand for drugs.

E. Western Europe

62. Cannabis remains the most widely available and commonly abused drug in Europe. The European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) reported an increase in the number of persons attending treatment centres for cannabis abuse in the late 1990s, especially among younger clients. Cannabis remains the primary drug in drug offences, notably for use or possession. In addition, the number of seizures has increased sharply since 1997.

63. Amphetamines and Ecstasy are the second most commonly abused drugs in Europe. Following large increases during the first half of the 1990s, abuse of ATS appears to be stable or even declining among youth. Nonetheless, the proportion of clients seeking treatment for ATS abuse, though low, is increasing in some countries. Abuse of amphetamines and Ecstasy is shifting away from large dance events to more geographically diffuse club, bar and private settings. A wider range of drugs and patterns of abuse are observed, linked to different social groups and lifestyles. Both the number and quantities of amphetamine seizures stabilized during the late 1990s.

64. While cocaine is less commonly abused than amphetamines or Ecstasy, its use is rising and spreading to a broader population. However, the situation is not comparable to the strong increase in abuse and trafficking experienced in other regions during the 1980s. In 1998 and 1999, the number of cocaine seizures continued to increase as a result of more effective enforcement measures, although the quantities involved fluctuated.[19]

65. Heroin dependence remains broadly stable or is declining. Known heroin users are a largely ageing population with serious health, social and psychiatric problems. Heroin experience among youth remains low, and school surveys show that pupils are highly cautious about using heroin. However, heroin abuse is reported among young, heavy recreational users of amphetamines, Ecstasy and other drugs. Other high-risk groups include marginalized minorities, homeless

young people, institutionalized youth and young offenders, prisoners and sex workers. The number of heroin seizures and the quantities involved are stable across western Europe, although variations exist between countries.

66. Overall trends in the prevalence of HIV and hepatitis B and C among injecting drug users appear relatively stable, although some local increases in HIV infection are reported. Since the mid-1990s, HIV prevalence seems to have stabilized in most countries, after a sharp decline following the first major epidemic among drug injectors during the 1980s.

F. North America

67. The illicit drug market in North America, particularly in the United States, is one of the most profitable in the world. Diverse groups traffic drugs into the United States and operate distribution networks throughout the continent. Criminal groups smuggle cocaine and heroin along land routes through Mexico, via maritime routes on both coasts of Mexico and through the Caribbean, and also via international air corridors.

68. Smokable "crack" cocaine is still the principal threat to the United States. Action against cocaine traffickers absorbed most of the drug law enforcement resources. The south-west border is the primary point of entry, accounting for 54 per cent of consignments to the United States. Cocaine is readily available in nearly all major cities in North America. However, cocaine abuse in the United States has declined over the past decade. The rate of abuse has stabilized in recent years. Crack cocaine abuse has reached saturation point throughout the country. Cocaine enters Canada mostly by private and commercial aircraft, motherships, maritime containers and land transport, only a share of which is destined for the Canadian market.

69. In Mexico, the second most abused drug is cocaine, with major seizures being made by law enforcement agencies, in particular through maritime operations. The territory of Mexico is used as an important transit point for cocaine shipments bound for the United States, as well as a significant source of cannabis and, to a lesser extent, heroin. In Mexico, reports indicate increased heroin and cocaine abuse, although such abuse is at a much lower level than in Canada and the United States.

70. Heroin is available in many cities in the United States, Canada and Mexico. High-purity heroin produced in Colombia is predominantly available along the east coast and in the north-east of the United States. It is principally smuggled by air and distributed by well-established polydrug-smuggling and -distribution networks in the metropolitan areas.

71. Indicators over the past few years point to a decrease in high-quality south-east Asian heroin available in the United States. Though reduced, distribution of heroin from that region remains firmly in the control of sophisticated ethnic Asian criminal groups. West African trafficking groups are also involved in smuggling heroin into the United States. However, Asian-based criminal groups are actively involved in the illicit supply of heroin to Canada. South-east Asia remains the main source of heroin available in Canada.

72. Methamphetamine production, trafficking and abuse have been concentrated primarily in the west, south-west and mid-west of the United States. Clandestine laboratories operating in California and Mexico are the primary sources of supply for the United States. The illicit trafficking of methamphetamine has been on the rise in Mexico in recent years, with the Mexican authorities making large seizures in 1999 and 2000.

73. Trafficking groups from Europe and Israel are the principal suppliers of MDMA (Ecstasy) to the United States market, using commercial airlines, couriers and the mail system.[20] Ecstasy is increasingly viewed by many young people as a "safe" alternative to crack cocaine, cocaine or heroin. In some parts of Canada, Ecstasy appears to be the preferred drug of abuse, after cannabis, among adolescents and young adults.

74. Cannabis continues to be the most popular drug of abuse in Canada, Mexico and the United States. The increasing popularity of hydroponically grown cannabis with a high THC content in the western part of Canada and in some parts of the United States is a major challenge to law enforcement authorities. The Board has noted with concern that the indoor cultivation of very potent cannabis varieties is being promoted through the sale of both cannabis seeds and

paraphernalia for growing cannabis over Internet web sites located primarily on servers in Canada.

75. In the United States, lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) remains available in retail quantities in virtually every state. Production is believed to be centred on San Franciso, the west coast, and the Pacific north-west. LSD is also available in Canada; however, its popularity seems to be waning in favour of Ecstasy.

V. Reporting on the action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session

76. The present section contains an analysis of information submitted by Governments, through biennial questionnaires, on the various action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session. The questionnaire covers all sectors of drug control, and information has been provided by different ministries and agencies, according to their fields of competence.

77. The Commission, in its resolution 42/11, established 30 June 2000 as the deadline for Governments to submit to the Executive Director their biennial questionnaires, in order to provide the necessary time for analysis of the information and reporting to the Commission. Only 15 replies had been received by that date. In response to a request made by the Commission at its first inter-sessional meeting held on 18 September 2000, a further reminder was addressed to those States which had not yet submitted their questionnaires. By 8 November 2000, 81 questionnaires had been received, on the basis of which the report was prepared. Additional questionnaires received after that date are not included in the analysis.

78. The response rate was relatively disappointing. By comparison, 120 States submitted the annual reports questionnaire in 1999. That, however, may be partly due to the fact that the biennial questionnaire is new and in its first reporting cycle. In future, as the reporting mechanism becomes established, response rates are expected to improve. However, since the questionnaire is an important instrument to monitor the progress made in meeting the challenges taken up at the special session, the Commission may wish to consider the possibility of encouraging greater compliance, in particular the timely submission of questionnaires to the Secretariat.

79. As a biennial exercise, the next cycle of data collection through the follow-up questionnaire is 2002, with an analysis of the information being submitted in a report to the Commission at its forty-sixth session in 2003. That should provide two sets of standardized data to facilitate the mid-term review and the preparation of a report to the General Assembly in 2003. Given the rates of response to the initial exercise, the Commission may wish to consider whether the first round of reporting yielded data of sufficient quantity and quality for that purpose. If the intention of the first round was to provide a baseline for gauging progress, the exercise should be as comprehensive as possible. In that regard, the Commission may wish to consider whether any follow-up activities are required in 2001. One possibility would be for the Commission to request those States that did not reply to the initial request to submit their questionnaires in 2000 to do so in early 2001. The information provided would be included in an addendum to the present report for consideration by the Commission at its reconvened session in December 2001, without affecting the cycle of reporting. A data set could then be compiled for future deliberations.

80. Table 1 presents an analysis of response rates by region, in terms of the total number of countries and territories that could have responded from each geographical region. The information suggests that the response rates of developed countries, in particular those in Europe, were well above those of developing countries, most notably those in Africa and Asia.

Table 1
Analysis of responses by region

Region	*Number of responses available for analysis (total=81)*	*Percentage of all responses*	*Estimated percentage of those responding in each region*
Africa	11	14	21
Americas	23	28	62
Asia	13	16	28
Europe	32	40	71
Oceania	2	2	15

81. The information contained in the questionnaires is the basis for the analysis given below. As requested in Commission resolution 42/11, other information available to UNDCP, drawn mainly from its technical assistance portfolio, has also been considered. The action plans and measures adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session served as a catalyst for action, in particular in the implementation of the international drug control treaties. They also complement the Global Programme of Action adopted by the General Assembly at its seventeenth special session (resolution S-17/2, annex), on 23 February 1991. Several activities reported by Member States in the questionnaire were undertaken to comply with earlier mandates, such as those relating to precursors and ATS, respectively, arising from article 12 of the 1988 Convention and from the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971.[21] The analysis below accordingly reflects the action taken by Member States, as reported in the questionnaire, without going into a detailed assessment of the effectiveness of such action.

82. The action plans and measures adopted at the twentieth special session have become the global point of reference at the national and regional levels. They have had a major impact, as Governments of States ravaged by the effects of illegal drugs over the past three decades could at last see their national efforts as part of a global strategy. For States such as Bolivia, Colombia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Pakistan, Peru and Thailand, which have resolutely committed themselves to the eradication of illicit cultivation of the coca bush and opium poppy through alternative development, the special session brought recognition from the international community for their efforts.

83. National drug control strategies or plans have been adopted or updated to include the goals and targets that emerged from the special session. A national drug control strategy or plan is an essential instrument to ensure careful planning and coordinated action that addresses all aspects of the drug problem and the interactions between different areas of activity such as law enforcement, health, education and economic development. National strategies or plans can legitimate the balanced approach between demand reduction and supply reduction measures. Of the 81 Governments replying to the biennial questionnaire, 67 (83 per cent) indicated that they had adopted a national drug strategy or plan. Some Governments specified that, while there was an overall strategy to combat illicit drugs, it was not contained in a single, comprehensive action plan. Twelve Governments (15 per cent) either did not have a national drug strategy or action plan or were in the process of elaborating one. In several countries, ongoing action plans and strategies were being adjusted to include the goals and approach adopted at the special session. Some States were receiving assistance in the preparation of their national plans.

84. In many cases, the national strategic framework and programmes place special emphasis on the synergies and complementarity between control measures, health, law enforcement policies and programmes. Those efforts have facilitated the coordination of law enforcement, prevention, treatment and social reintegration programmes,[22] resulting in a more balanced approach with greater emphasis on demand reduction. Of the 81 Governments replying to the biennial questionnaire, 70 per cent indicated that they have incorporated the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction into their national drug strategies or action plans. Eight States indicated that they had not yet incorporated the Guiding Principles into their national strategies or plans.

85. Effective coordination between the various sectors is an essential requirement for the implementation of the national drug strategy or action plan. Most Governments (83 per cent of the reporting States) have established a central coordinating entity to implement their national drug strategies or action plans.

86. In 73 States (90 per cent of those reporting), the national drug strategy or action plan is multisectoral. The main sectors covered are health (in 67 States, or 83 per cent), social programmes (in 60 States, or 74 per cent), education (in 66 States, or 81 per cent), law enforcement (in 67 States, or 83 per cent), justice (in 65 States, or 80 per cent) and employment (in 36 States, or 44 per cent). The involvement of non-governmental organizations, civil society associations, churches, charitable funds and communities in the formulation and implementation of national drug strategies was mentioned in almost all the replies. The involvement of youth organizations was included in the national strategies of several States (11); environmental management was covered in two replies; and the requirement to consult a wide array of experts and

officials while developing the national drug control strategy was mentioned by one State. In view of the high political commitment attached to combating the drug problem and the importance of coordination and leadership, the national coordinating entities for the implementation of the national drug strategy in several States, including Italy and Japan, was chaired by the head of Government. Other States have established national inter-agency committees at the ministerial level to enhance coordination.

A. Action Plan for the Implementation of the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction

87. Section VIII of the biennial questionnaire deals with drug demand reduction and consists of 29 questions organized into seven sections. The sections address political and strategic responses (the commitment), information resources (assessing the problem), responses (tackling the problem), methods of working (forging partnerships), working with vulnerable or special populations (focusing on special needs), dissemination and education (sending the right message) and training and coordination issues (building on experience). Each topic is addressed below in the order in which it appears in the questionnaire. Qualitative comments and other related materials are also referred to where appropriate. Percentages will be based either on the number of responses to any given question or the total number of questionnaires covered by the report (the whole sample comprises 81 States that submitted replies). The base used for calculating percentages is noted in the text.

1. The commitment

88. Questions dealing with the commitment explore the political and strategic responses to drug demand reduction. A national strategy for drug demand reduction is important in coordinating responses and ensuring good practice and a balanced approach between the measures to reduce demand and supply enshrined in the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction. Such a strategy also provides a basis for promoting multisectoral and community-wide responses, as called for in the Declaration. Appropriately, the first question in section VIII asks States whether they have a national strategy for demand reduction. That question drew a positive response in the overwhelming majority of cases. Of the States replying, 89 per cent reported having a national strategy and the remainder (11 per cent) reported that they did not. That was one of the few questions in the section to which nearly all States replied. Some States provided details of their national plans and other budgetary and related information. The examples given suggested that some States had invested considerable effort into developing strategic plans and that there was also a significant overlap between States in respect of the topics covered. The sharing of experiences between Member States in that area might therefore prove useful.

89. It is difficult to judge the merit of individual strategic responses from such a simple question. In many cases, demand reduction strategies appeared to be incorporated into national drug strategies that embraced both demand and supply issues. The question of balance remains, as does the extent to which national strategy has an impact on practice. However, most States (83 per cent) that had a national strategy reported, in a supplementary response, that it incorporated the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction. That suggests that their national strategic planning took into account the agreed principles of good practice. Seventeen per cent of States reported that their strategic planning did not incorporate the Guiding Principles, and a further 7 States did not respond, possibly because there was some uncertainty about how far their national strategies did reflect the Guiding Principles. Therefore, 54 of the States replying (67 per cent) reported that they had a national strategy that incorporated the Guiding Principles. While that still leaves room for improvement in both the number of States with a national demand reduction strategy and the number of those with a strategic response that incorporates the Guiding Principles, it is encouraging that the issue elicits a positive response from so many Member States.

90. A further indicator of both the appropriateness of national strategies and the extent to which they are in accord with the Guiding Principles is whether their formation was based on an assessment of the nature of the problem. Central to the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction is the principle that responses should be consistent with the evidence and that demand reduction programmes should therefore be based on a regular assessment of the situation.

Most States (87 per cent) that had a national strategy reported that such was the case.

91. Almost all States (93 per cent) with national demand reduction strategies also reported that they had a central coordinating entity responsible for its implementation. Coordinating bodies varied, but most States reported that responsibility rested with either the ministry of health or the ministry of justice, or with some form of multisectoral drug commission known as, for example, the National Commission on Narcotic Drugs, the Central Committee for Drug Abuse Control or the Drug Control Committee. Regardless of where responsibility for the national strategy lay, nearly all countries reported that a multisectoral approach was adopted.

92. A comprehensive approach to demand reduction, as promoted in the Guiding Principles, requires support, commitment and input from a wide range of both governmental and non-governmental agencies. Therefore, not only should responses be formulated at the national level, but there should also be active participation of appropriate bodies at the local community level. The extent to which that was happening in both policy formulation and implementation is covered in question 69, which asks which governmental, public and official agencies, are involved in developing and implementing the national strategy for drug demand reduction at each structural level (national, regional and local). The question also asks about the involvement of civil society (non-governmental organizations and trade unions) in the same process. The data are summarized in table 2, which provides the percentage of those responding positively to the question, based on both the total sample N (81 States replying) and the number of replies to each part of the question (using the total number of answers to that particular question as the basis for calculation).

93. Such an approach has been adopted to allow reflection on the sample as a whole, and because of the apparent tendency of those responding not to answer in the negative. That is, missing values increase for those questions where a lower positive response rate could reasonably be expected. The problem of distinguishing negative responses from non-responses is also apparent elsewhere in the questionnaire, where the design permits only positive responses. Nonetheless, regardless of the base used, there is evidence of considerable multisectoral and multi-agency cooperation. Not surprisingly, at both national and local level, health agencies are the most commonly reported as being involved in formulating and implementing a national demand reduction strategy. The involvement of civil society (non-governmental organizations etc.) was also most often reported in the health sector. Social services, education and justice agencies were also almost always involved in formulating and implementing national strategies. About a half of all States reporting also noted that employment agencies were involved at national level in the formulation and implementation of a demand reduction strategy. The link, in many countries, between drug abuse, social exclusion and economic deprivation is noteworthy, as is the reported considerable input from civil society. Such input is in accordance with the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction, which refers to the importance of forging partnerships between governmental and non-governmental bodies.

94. Question 70 asks whether the implementation of the national drug demand reduction strategy is supported by a dedicated budget. All policy initiatives have to compete for often scarce budgetary resources to secure the allocation required for their successful implementation. The allocation of resources for the specific purpose of implementing the national strategy for drug demand reduction is therefore likely to be an indicator of the relative importance that Governments attach to demand reduction and to the practical impact of a policy initiative in that area. However, a note of caution is required, since governmental financing is a complex issue, and the absence of a dedicated budget does not necessarily rule out the availability of resources through other channels. That being said, it is encouraging that the majority (65 per cent) of States with national strategies reported allocating dedicated budgets for implementation.

95. The emphasis placed by the Guiding Principles on assessment and on the adoption of an evidence-based approach was noted earlier in the present report. Those principles hold true for national strategies. The overwhelming majority (81 per cent) of States with national strategies reported having a framework in place for assessing and reporting on the results achieved. While the mechanisms used for that purpose are likely to vary considerably in practice, a recognition of the need for evaluation and assessment remains important for the majority of countries that have developed demand reduction strategies.

Table 2
Involvement of different sectors in developing and implementing a national strategy for drug demand reduction

	Involvement at the national level			*Involvement at the local level*			*Involvement of civil society*		
Sector	*% of respondents*	*Responses (positive/total)*	*% of total sample*	*% of respondents*	*Responses (positive/total)*	*% of total sample*	*% of respondents*	*Responses (positive/total)*	*% of total sample*
Health	100	74/74	91	88	57/65	70	91	61/67	75
Social services	97	65/67	80	83	50/60	62	89	56/63	69
Education	97	68/70	84	86	56/65	69	91	59/65	73
Law enforcement	99	70/71	86	86	55/64	68	53	27/51	33
Justice	94	64/68	79	79	46/58	57	52	24/46	30
Employment	72	42/58	52	65	35/54	43	67	36/54	44
Other	85	40/7	49	64	21/33	26	63	19/30	23

2. Assessing the problem

96. The biennial questionnaire addressed the topic of assessment in detail. Two thirds (60 per cent) of all States completing the questionnaire reported that they had a national or regional programme for research on drugs, drug dependence and drug demand reduction. Clearly, the scale and intensity of research activity varies greatly between States. The United States, for example, reported investing $668,100,000 in demand reduction research in 1999 alone. Other States, such as Belize, reported that a lack of resources hindered any sort of research activity. Mention was also made of regional and national research coordination bodies that facilitated information-gathering, such as the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction and, in the United States, the National Institute on Drug Abuse. Some States provided details on impressively comprehensive programmes. Mexico, for example, invests in a range of drug epidemiological surveillance systems, including general population surveys, student surveys, treatment reporting networks and trend analysis.

97. Numerous possible topics are relevant to research work on drug issues and many scientific disciplines are actively involved in such research. Of particular interest, however, to activities designed to follow up the special session and of clear policy relevance is the extent of drug abuse in a country and the associated patterns and trends. Developments have been made in the methods available to conduct surveillance work and the issues are now far better understood than was previously the case. Methodological improvements have tended to focus on the development of standardized indicators, multi-method analytical techniques, improvements in survey techniques and the development of indirect statistical methods for prevalence estimation. Data on global patterns and trends in drug abuse (drug epidemiology) are collected in part two of the annual reports questionnaire submitted by Governments to the Commission. As reported elsewhere, that instrument is currently being revised to reflect current standards of good practice. Given the importance of such information and its direct policy relevance, it is encouraging that 65 per cent of the States completing the biennial questionnaire report that they have a framework for the continued surveillance of drug abuse problems. It is also interesting that drug epidemiology and prevention were cited as the two areas where most research was currently being conducted. That finding corresponds to answers given to question 74, on the subject areas in which research results were published or research was carried out in Member States during the reporting period. These data are presented in table 3. Once again, there appears to be a tendency for respondents not to answer questions in the negative. As such, the percentage based on all States responding to the biennial questionnaire may be a better indicator of overall activity levels than the percentage based on rates of response to particular questions. Although it could also be that the person or agency responsible for completing the form was not

clear whether the particular research activity was or was not being conducted. In any case, the data suggests differences in the relative frequency of research activity in the different topic areas. It appears, somewhat predictably, that less research is being conducted in the areas of cost analysis, biochemistry and pharmacology, and most research in the areas of prevention, treatment and epidemiology, with the general categories of sociology and drug policy falling somewhere in between. Of direct policy relevance is investment in prevention, treatment and epidemiological research. Research into cost analysis is theoretically complex and depends on the availability of accurate epidemiological and other data. UNDCP has been supporting such work, but it remains a topic requiring long-term development, and only a few countries have yet been able to produce credible detailed estimates in that area.

Table 3

Areas in which research results were published or research was carried out during the reporting period

	Positive responses		
Area	*Percentage of respondents*	*Responses (positive/ total)*	*Percentage of total sample*
Biochemistry	45	20/44	25
Pharmacology	52	24/46	30
Sociology	69	36/52	44
Epidemiology	85	50/59	62
Prevention	88	52/59	64
Treatment	84	49/58	60
General drug policy	66	35/53	43
Cost analysis	39	17/44	21

98. The importance of a national strategic response, based on a sound assessment of the nature of the drug abuse problem and facilitating the development of demand reduction programmes, is reflected in the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction. The Declaration calls on States to adopt a comprehensive approach to drug problems through programmes addressing all areas of demand reduction. In the biennial questionnaire, the extent to which Member States are engaging in activities in each area of demand reduction is assessed. Demand reduction activities are divided into three specific areas: prevention, treatment and rehabilitation; and reducing the adverse health and social consequences of drug abuse. States are asked to report whether they are conducting programmes in each of those areas in a number of different settings. In assessing the delivery of demand reduction activities, it is important to understand how comprehensive the approach is in terms of coverage. To that end, a supplementary question is included that asks whether the particular programme is "isolated/sporadic" or "relatively extensive". As the Declaration also calls for demand reduction activities to be "gender-sensitive" and "evaluated", two further supplementary questions address those aspects. In interpreting the data, it should be remembered that the actual configuration of activities in any country is likely to be influenced to a great extent by the nature of the national drug abuse problem.

99. Table 4 reports data on prevention activities broken down into the following three general areas of work: information and education about drugs and drug abuse; life skills development, and providing alternatives to drug use. States are also asked to rate the extent of activities in various settings. The data suggest that most prevention work is occurring in schools and involves providing information. It should be remembered, however, that there is a tendency for both life skills development and alternatives to drug use to be targeted at particular populations considered to be at risk, rather than necessarily being seen as appropriate approaches for the general population. They may also be more complex and costly to implement than simple information-providing activities. Those factors may partly account for the more extensive reporting of information and drug education work as prevention activities.

100. Seventy five per cent of States reported relatively extensive school-based drug education programmes. Some States reported them as part of the formal school curriculum; for example, Ireland will include education about drugs and drug abuse in classes on social, personal and health education in secondary-level schools from September 2000. Similarly, Australia has developed drug education classes in school as part of a national school drug education strategy. Just over half of the States also reported extensive community-based education programmes and slightly less than half (44 per cent) noted extensive prevention programmes in health centres. About a third of all programmes were reported as gender-sensitive, although the criteria on

which that judgement is based remain unclear and may be a topic worthy of more detailed future consideration and discussion. School-based drug education programmes were also most likely to be evaluated (42 per cent). Education programmes in the correctional system and the workplace were the least reported. That finding is disappointing, because both settings may be particularly appropriate for such drug prevention work.

101. Life-skills development refers to a range of activities designed to strengthen social and coping abilities to enable the individual to avoid taking drugs and developing drug problems (see table 4, section B). Life-skills development programmes were more commonly reported in school settings. Such work is sometimes considered particularly appropriate for high-risk or vulnerable populations. That is probably reflected in the fact that 28 per cent of the States reported extensive prison life-skills programmes. The workplace was again the setting in which such work was least often conducted. Similar findings apply to providing alternatives to drug use. Such programmes encourage positive activities and training to displace the role that drug use might play in a person's life. It is also common for that approach to be regarded as particularly appropriate for young people or for those considered to be at increased risk of developing drug problems (see table 4, section C).

102. The treatment and rehabilitation of those with drug problems is clearly an important area of demand reduction work. While treatment programmes are relatively costly and complex, there is a good body of evidence that they can produce results and be cost-effective. Amalgamating treatment and rehabilitation services is difficult because of the diversity of activities and settings found in different Member States. The biennial questionnaire groups treatment and rehabilitation services under the following headings: detoxification; substitution therapy; non-pharmacological treatment; and social reintegration. Corresponding data can be found in table 5.

103. Detoxification is among the better-known treatments for drug problems. It should be noted, however, that a wide range of procedures might fall under that heading. Procedures used for detoxification are likely to vary both by drug type and by country. For example, Indonesia reports a traditional approach using religious methods and an ultra-rapid one-day detoxification. Elsewhere, detoxification for opioid problems may involve the prescription of a reducing dose of a substitute opioid, such as methadone, over a number of days or weeks. It should not, therefore, be assumed that the responses given describe similar treatment regimes. That is most probably true for the use of detoxification medicines, where considerable variation in practice is likely, ranging from herbal treatments to the use of opioid drugs. Detoxification was most commonly reported in specialist centres with treatment being received on either a residential or ambulatory basis. Over half of the States reported extensive residential detoxification services. Fifty-seven per cent of States provided extensive detoxification services in general or psychiatric hospitals. Given the possible difficulties of providing treatment services in that setting, it is interesting to note that 22 per cent of States reported extensive detoxification facilities within the criminal justice system.

104. Drug substitution treatment involves giving prescribed medicines to patients with drug problems to replace the use of illicit drugs, often but not necessarily for protracted time periods. Substitution treatment is most commonly associated with heroin and other opioids. For purposes of clarity, the question excludes short-term drug therapies intended for detoxification. The biennial questionnaire yields data on the provision of substitution therapy that are broadly similar to those found for detoxification. Residential substitution treatment is extensively provided by 43 per cent of States reporting, and offered extensively on an ambulatory basis by a further 36 per cent. One interesting difference reported is the greater involvement of social services in substitution therapy than in detoxification. Also noteworthy is that about a third of the States report extensive substitution therapy in correctional institutions. With regard to programmes being gender-sensitive, the results are again somewhat disappointing. However, low rates of response to that question suggest that there may be some definitional problems. Overall rates of programme evaluation also leave considerable room for improvement. As with the other treatment modalities, specialized services were most likely to be subject to evaluation. But even in such cases, and by the most positive interpretation of the data, only about half of all specialized non-residential services were reported as evaluated.

Table 4
Extent of prevention activities

	Extent of programme			*Programme execution*			
				Gender-sensitive		*Results evaluated*	
Setting	*Not known; No response* (%)	*Isolated* (%)	*Relatively extensive* (%)	*% of total sample*	*% of States reporting activities[a]*	*% of total sample*	*% of States reporting activities[a]*
A. Information and education about drugs and drug abuse							
Schools	1	24	75	33	34	42	43
Community-based	15	32	53	28	33	36	42
Workplace	33	53	14	19	28	21	31
Correctional system	22	46	32	27	35	17	22
Health centres	26	30	44	27	37	26	35
Other	77	5	18	7	32	14	58
B. Life skills development							
Schools	20	28	52	32	40	33	42
Community-based	31	31	38	23	34	20	29
Workplace	56	37	7	16	36	14	31
Correctional system	38	33	28	25	40	15	24
Health centres	37	31	32	22	35	16	25
Other	88	5	6	4	33	2	22
C. Providing alternatives to drug use							
Schools	20	26	54	27	34	26	32
Community-based	32	31	37	25	35	21	31
Workplace	58	35	7	9	21	11	26
Correctional system	41	32	27	25	42	15	25
Health centres	52	27	21	21	44	15	31
Other	88	5	7	2	20	4	30

[a] Isolated or extensive.

Table 5
Treatment and rehabilitation interventions

Setting	Extent of programme: Not known/ No response (%)	Extent of programme: Isolated (%)	Extent of programme: Relatively extensive (%)	Programme execution: Gender-sensitive: % of total sample	Programme execution: Gender-sensitive: % of States reporting activities[a]	Programme execution: Results evaluated: % of total sample	Programme execution: Results evaluated: % of States reporting activities[a]
A. Detoxification							
General and psychiatric hospitals	8	35	57	32	35	38	42
Primary care and other health facilities	32	51	17	22	33	21	31
Correctional institutions	40	38	22	22	37	11	18
Community institutions	60	25	15	15	38	14	34
Specialized addiction treatment (residential)	26	14	60	29	41	36	49
Specialized addiction treatment (non-residential)	26	31	43	27	37	32	43
Social services	59	25	16	14	33	11	27
Other	96	1	3	2	67	1	33
B. Substitution treatment (therapy), excluding short-term detoxification							
General and psychiatric hospitals	48	26	19	19	36	16	38
Primary care and other health facilities	55	36	9	14	31	16	28
Correctional institutions	44	27	29	14	31	15	27
Specialized addiction treatment (residential)	33	24	43	22	33	28	43
Specialized addiction treatment (non-residential)	37	27	36	26	41	31	49
Social services	44	24	32	21	38	16	29
Other	91	5	4	1	14	1	14

Setting	Extent of programme			Programme execution			
				Gender-sensitive		Results evaluated	
	Not known/ No response (%)	Isolated (%)	Relatively extensive (%)	% of total sample	% of States reporting activities[a]	% of total sample	% of States reporting activities[a]
C. Non-pharmacological treatment							
General and psychiatric hospitals	47	28	25	15	28	21	40
Primary care and other health facilities	52	31	17	14	28	14	28
Correctional institutions	48	26	26	21	40	20	38
Specialized addiction treatment (residential)	35	18	47	28	43	32	49
Specialized addiction treatment (non-residential)	31	21	48	25	36	35	50
Social services	54	30	16	11	24	12	27
Other	96	1	3	2	67	1	33
D. Social reintegration							
General and psychiatric hospitals	51	31	18	21	43	19	38
Primary care and other health facilities	53	38	9	15	32	12	26
Correctional institutions	43	30	27	19	33	15	26
Specialized addiction treatment (residential)	36	21	43	23	37	27	42
Specialized addiction treatment (non-residential)	35	26	39	30	45	35	53
Social services	42	26	32	22	38	17	30
Other	91	5	4	4	43	2	29

[a]Isolated or extensive.

105. Reports on the provision of non-pharmacological treatments follow a similar pattern to both detoxification and substitution therapy. A diverse range of therapies and interventions are covered under that heading, and most appear to be provided by specialist services on an in-patient or ambulatory basis. That is also the case for social reintegration interventions. However, higher levels of non-pharmacological treatments are reported in correctional facilities. That is understandable, given the high number of persons with drug problems in correctional facilities and the establishment in some countries of reintegration programmes designed to inhibit relapse. The involvement of social services is also higher than for the other treatment modalities considered. That is probably associated with the fact that social reintegration activities do not necessarily require the same level of medical input as the other treatment areas considered, and may therefore be more likely to be delivered through agencies involved in social care.

106. The biennial questionnaire also addresses the extent to which provision is made to reduce the negative health and social consequences of drug abuse (see table 6). Dominating the agenda in that area are concerns about drug-related blood-borne infections, notably HIV. However, programmes may also address other issues, such as overdose prevention, the provision of information and the promotion of primary health-care services. Some of those activities are relatively recent developments compared with other treatment efforts referred to. Nonetheless, considerable activity is reported. The provision of outreach programmes, which may have a range of goals, such as acting as a conduit to more formal treatment options, is widely reported by 46 per cent of responding States. Next in importance comes the dissemination of information about safety procedures, with 41 per cent of responding States reporting extensive activities and testing programmes for infectious diseases. Vaccination, presumably against infections such as Hepatitis B, which may be acquired by sharing injecting equipment, was also extensively offered by 30 per cent of the States. A third of the States reported extensive condom distribution schemes to reduce the incidence of sexually acquired infections among drug abusers. That is considered appropriate, given the sexual risk behaviour often associated with drug problems. A politically more controversial area is the provision of clean injecting equipment (needle and syringe exchange) to drug injectors, a practice developed in some countries as a response to the risk of HIV and other blood-borne infections. About a half of all responding States reported some degree of syringe exchange, with just under a quarter reporting extensive coverage. The wording on the questionnaire allows only for not-known responses. For purposes of clarity, non-responses and not-known responses have been combined in the tabulation provided. It appears plausible that responses in that category for the most part indicate that provision is not available, rather that the respondent is simply unaware of the situation.

107. In section D, the biennial questionnaire addresses the theme of the organization of demand reduction activities and whether there is a multisectoral committee to facilitate partnerships. The results here are remarkably positive. Most States (85 per cent of all those responding and 97 per cent of replies to the question) reported that they have multisectoral committees at the national level. Slightly lower numbers report the existence of local multisectoral committees (64 per cent of all respondents and 81 per cent of replies to the question). Committees at the regional level were slightly less likely to be reported, although that difference was marginal (61 per cent of all respondents and 79 per cent of replies to the question). Many States (63 per cent of all respondents and 80 per cent of replies to the question) also reported the establishment of an umbrella organization for non-governmental organizations. The networking organizations and collaborating mechanisms were also largely reported to have provisions for identifying and including new partners (60 per cent of all respondents and 84 per cent of replies to the question).

Table 6
Reducing the negative health and social consequences of drug abuse

	Extent of programme			*Programme execution*			
	Not known/ No response	*Isolated*	*Relatively extensive*	*Gender-sensitive*		*Results evaluated*	
Setting	*(%)*	*(%)*	*(%)*	*% of total sample*	*% of States reporting activities*[a]	*% of total sample*	*% of States reporting activities*[a]
Low-threshold interventions	42	35	23	20	34	26	45
Outreach	33	21	46	22	33	26	39
Emergency shelters	53	28	19	19	39	14	29
Overdose prevention programmes	72	18	10	5	17	7	26
Dissemination of information on safety procedures	41	18	41	15	25	15	25
Needle and syringe exchange programme	51	26	23	12	25	21	43
Provision of cleaning agents	68	20	12	9	27	7	23
Testing programme for infectious diseases	38	25	37	17	28	20	32
Vaccination	49	21	30	10	20	14	27
Condom distribution	32	36	32	20	29	14	20
Other	90	7	3	2	25	4	38

[a]Isolated or extensive.

108. It is well known that drug problems are often entwined with other social problems, and that they may therefore have a disproportionately serious impact on disadvantaged or marginalized groups within societies. As a result, one important area of demand reduction work consists in identifying those populations that are especially vulnerable to drug problems. That can lead to the better development and targeting of demand reduction programmes. In that context, it is important to ensure that interventions respect and are sensitive to cultural diversity, an issue specifically addressed in the Declaration on the Guiding Principles of Drug Demand Reduction. Guidelines can help ensure that good practice is observed in that area. Many States responding to the questionnaire reported the existence of guidelines for prevention activities (67 per cent), treatment services (77 per cent), and rehabilitation services (59 per cent). A supplementary question asks whether such guidelines take into account cultural diversity and specific needs relating to gender, age and socially, culturally and geographically marginalized groups in the population. Sixty-two per cent of States reported such to be the case. Developing guidelines sensitive to such issues is not a trivial task. It may be useful to compare how the issue has been addressed in practice and what lessons can be shared between countries in that respect.

109. The importance of initiating demand reduction activities targeting those particularly vulnerable appears to be commonly accepted, with 65 per cent per cent of all States reporting special programmes in that area. Groups that are considered vulnerable to drug problems are likely to vary between societies, while some commonalities can also be expected. Where demand reduction programmes have been developed, the groups identified as vulnerable include sex workers, prisoners, the children of drug-using parents, indigenous populations, street children and the homeless, ethnic minority populations, young offenders, transportation workers, the economically marginalized, school excludees and workers in the entertainment industry. It is regarded as a point of good practice to take into account, when developing programmes, the views of those who are the target of the demand reduction work. Question 85 of the biennial questionnaire asks whether young people or members of risk groups had been involved in programme development or implementation. The involvement of young people was more commonly reported than that of members of risk groups (in 73 per cent and 57 per cent of all States, respectively).

110. One group commonly regarded as vulnerable to drug problems consists of prisoners within the justice system. Demand reduction programmes designed to target prisoners in the community once they had been released were reported by 43 per cent of all responding States, while those targeting prisoners before release were more common (in 54 per cent of all States). In addition, 42 per cent of all States had established programmes for drug offenders as an alternative to punishment and conviction.

111. Most States (79 per cent) reported that their national drug strategy included public information campaigns. The campaigns were generally based on assessments (81 per cent of replies), and they took into account the social and cultural characteristics of the population (94 per cent of replies), but they were less commonly evaluated (58 per cent of replies).

3. Building on experience

112. The final section of the biennial questionnaire, entitled "Building on experience", considers how States can ensure that the lessons learned about effective programme activity are transferred to ensure continuity and the further development of good practice. With regard to training within specialist drug services, over half of the States reported ongoing training to be available. However, that was far less commonly the case for non-specialist services. Most States reported some form of initial training to be available for both specialist and non-specialist programme staff.

113. Sixty-five per cent of the States reported that their strategies and activities were monitored and evaluated to enable them to improve their national strategy for drug demand reduction. Many States also reported being involved in international coordinating mechanisms for the exchange of information at the bilateral level (75 per cent), at the regional level (80 per cent) and at the multilateral level (77 per cent). More disappointingly, less than a half (49 per cent) of all States reported maintaining a national database with information on drug demand reduction. Where such a database existed, it was not usually linked with other multinational or global networks (36 per cent of those responding and 26 per cent of all States reported that such was the case). Given the range of experiences reported by States in the questionnaire, one area of obvious importance is how experiences and lessons learned can be shared between States.

114. In conclusion, an initial analysis of the biennial questionnaire suggests that the instrument has a useful role to play in monitoring global drug demand reduction efforts. The instrument does present technical difficulties, the most obvious being that non-responses and negative responses are not always easily distinguishable. It is also not clear whether all the technical terms are being uniformly interpreted. Nevertheless, the instrument performs satisfactorily on the whole, and should prove adequate to provide baseline data for future review. One clear message that emerges from even the initial analysis of the instrument is that States have a wide variety of experience in demand reduction activities, and that there is therefore much to be gained from the sharing of information on how progress can best be made.

B. Action Plan on International Cooperation on the Eradication of Illicit Drug Crops and on Alternative Development

115. At the beginning of the twentieth century, global production of opium was estimated at approximately

20,000 tons per year. Today, it has fallen to less than a third of that amount, with global licit production of opium at about 1,300 tons and illicit production about 4,300 tons. Within that global picture, there is an even more interesting example of successful and sustained crop elimination. The bulk of the 20,000 tons produced annually at the beginning of the twentieth century was produced in China. Licit opium production in China today is almost negligible, at about 20 tons, and illicit cultivation has been virtually non-existent for the last 50 years. The history of drug control has many such examples. Other cases of successful and sustained eradication include Bolivia, Guatemala, the Islamic Republic of Iran, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Pakistan, Peru, Thailand and Turkey.

116. Past experience demonstrates that elimination of illicit cultivation can be achieved and sustained. It remains, however, a major challenge, with the level of difficulty depending on the different circumstances in which the illicit crops are grown. Illicit cultivation of narcotic crops puts parts of the rural population into an extremely precarious and insecure situation. Because of their geographical remoteness or because of political instability or civil war, there is often a lack of effective government control in the illicit crop-producing areas. Since those marginal areas are frequently outside the control of the national Government, the people living there have little or no access to even the most basic services, such as education, sanitation and health care, which are normally provided by the Government. Accordingly, the economic reliance on narcotic crop cultivation can only be removed when viable and sustainable income-generating alternatives are legally available. In practice, alternative development is simply the implementation of a coordinated set of programmes with the intended objective of addressing the factors at the heart of the drug problem. Such programmes are intended not only to achieve a viable eradication of narcotic crops in the near term, but also to sustain the elimination of those crops and the violence and insecurity that always accompany their cultivation. The positive results from different countries highlight the importance of locally adapted alternative development interventions.

117. In paragraph 18 of the Political Declaration adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, Member States reaffirmed their commitment to the elimination of illicit narcotic crops reflected in the Action Plan on International Cooperation on the Eradication of Illicit Drug Crops and on Alternative Development. The Action Plan was significant in many ways. First, Governments demonstrated an apparently genuine commitment and willingness to design time-bound strategies for the elimination or significant reduction of illicit crops. Secondly, Governments highlighted the importance of monitoring mechanisms, considered to be essential to assess the extent of and the trends in illicit cultivation. Finally, the Action Plan calls for specific action in the areas of economic development to support the elimination of illicit cultivation.

118. In its resolution 55/65 of 4 December 2000, the General Assembly called upon States in which cultivation and production of illicit drug crops occur to establish or reinforce, where appropriate, national mechanisms to monitor and verify illicit crops, and requested the Executive Director of UNDCP to report to the Commission at its forty-fourth session, in March 2001, on the follow-up to the Action Plan.

1. Global illicit crop monitoring programme

119. Estimates of illicit cultivation of narcotic crops and eradication levels have been derived from a patchwork of sources, with no comprehensive international mechanism available for the collection and analysis of data on illicit narcotic crops, and for monitoring and measuring the results of alternative development programmes. To address that issue, the Commission, in its resolution 42/3, entitled "Monitoring and verification of illicit cultivation", urged Governments producing coca bush, the cannabis plant and the opium poppy to design, formulate and implement effective national mechanisms for the monitoring and verification of illicit crops, including appropriate methodologies combining ground and aerial surveys, satellite monitoring and remote sensing. It requested UNDCP to establish a central data bank and information system on the basis of information furnished by Governments on the cultivation of illicit crops. UNDCP was also requested to assist Governments in establishing national mechanisms for monitoring and verification of the cultivation of illicit crops used in the production of drugs and developing an international network for the control of illicit cultivation for the purpose of implementing the Action Plan.

120. In response to the requests of the General Assembly and the Commission, UNDCP launched a global illicit crops monitoring programme consisting of: a global support subprogramme, based at UNDCP headquarters, to ensure that data collected is comparable at the global level; and six national subprogrammes for the countries in which the bulk of illicit crop cultivation occurs, namely, Afghanistan, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar, in Asia, and Bolivia, Colombia and Peru, in Latin America. The aim is to assist States in establishing monitoring systems by 2001 that would be able to produce internationally comparable data and benchmarks by which to measure progress towards the eradication goals for 2008. The programme will also allow quick detection of possible "balloon effects", that is, when the reduction of drug crops in one area triggers the start-up of cultivation in a previously less affected region. The four-year programme was initiated in January 2000, with the technical cooperation of the European Space Agency (ESA).

121. The national subprogrammes will support national authorities in developing the capability to monitor and evaluate illicit crop cultivation in their respective territories using cutting-edge geographic information technology such as satellite images, geographic information systems (GIS) and global positioning systems (GPS), together with ground and aerial surveys. Under a partnership arrangement with ESA, UNDCP carried out several assessment and programming missions in the six priority countries. The implementation of the common methodology are under constant review by a panel of internationally recognized experts in the field of remote sensing and monitoring.

122. In Peru, the first phase of the coca monitoring project is in full operation, with the aim of producing detailed maps of 11 coca-growing areas based on a combined interpretation of aerial photographs, satellite images and ground surveys. The aerial survey has been concluded for six coca-growing areas. In Colombia, the monitoring project started in September 1999. It is designed as a bridging project that prolongs the Colombian pilot phase of a first satellite survey in Guaviare and parts of Vaupes and Vichada, and that will be linked to a future land-use mapping project to be funded by the European Commission. Extensive use is being made of satellite imagery in a national survey to map the extent of illicit coca cultivation and support eradication efforts. In Bolivia and Myanmar, monitoring activities are at an initial stage, and will benefit from the implementation of specific methodologies for their illicit crops monitoring programmes. To support the impressive eradication programmes in Bolivia, technical advice was offered to develop a national system to identify and monitor illicit cultivation that is shifting to remote areas, particularly in the Chapare and Yungas region. Myanmar will benefit from an approach that takes into consideration the difficulty of accessing the growing areas and the complexity of the landscape. Preparatory work was initiated on the use of satellite imagery in the UNDCP alternative development project area, as a first step towards eventual national coverage. The assessment of illicit cultivation in Afghanistan and the Lao People's Democratic Republic, which have in place reliable ground surveys, will be improved by the incorporation of satellite imagery, GIS and GPS. The national systems are expected to contribute significantly to the establishment and reinforcement of an international network for the monitoring of illicit crops.

123. In almost all coca- and opium-producing areas, women are involved in the cultivation of the illicit crop as in that of other crops. Incorporation of the gender perspective in alternative development projects has increased the effectiveness and sustainability of the activities. From October 1998 to January 2000, UNDCP undertook an assessment of gender mainstreaming activities in alternative development. The results are reflected in the UNDCP guidelines on best practices for gender mainstreaming in alternative development, which incorporate existing knowledge and experience of the gender situation in geographic areas affected by illicit cultivation of narcotic crops. The guidelines will be used, in the first instance, for training purposes and for project development exercises.

2. Overview of alternative development initiatives by region

(a) Central, south and south-west Asia

124. In 2000, opium poppy cultivation in the Dir district of the North-West Frontier Province of Pakistan has been brought down from around 3,700 hectares in 1992 to near zero, and opium production from 800 tons in 1980 in the entire country to near zero in 2000, following the successful eradication efforts by the

Government of Pakistan and the shift by poppy-growing farmers to alternative development. The UNDCP alternative development project in the Dir district also contributed to that success. The second phase of the UNDCP Dir district development project, under way since 1994, achieved its objectives one full year ahead of schedule. The results are clearly visible in the shape of roads, electricity, irrigation channels, soil conservation works and afforestation, coupled with a diversified cropping pattern replacing opium poppy, the primary cash crop of the area. Of those developments, roads were especially important, as they have opened up the so-called hidden areas to licit trade with the outside world. To sustain the elimination of the opium poppy crop, planning has begun for a 5- to 10-year consolidation programme, involving bilateral and multilateral assistance.

125. In 1980, Afghanistan was an insignificant producer or source of opium, which was produced mostly for internal use and for a limited number of passing western tourists. Twenty years of prolonged war turned the country into a failed State with an alarming level of illicit opium poppy cultivation and production of opium and heroin. Today, Afghanistan is not only one of the poorest countries in the world, but also by far the most important producer of illicit opium, accounting for 75 per cent of the supply of global illicit opium production in 1999 and about 70 per cent in 2000.

126. The deteriorating economic conditions, in particular the extremely low subsistence living standards and structurally weak agricultural sector with poor marketing, combined with the persisting political uncertainties, have contributed to making the cultivation of the opium poppy appear as the only crop that, under the current circumstances, can produce enough profits to meet the essential needs of many Afghan subsistence farmers.

127. Afghanistan remains a major challenge for the global community in curtailing opium production and the availability of heroin. The challenge can be met. The situation in Afghanistan shows a potential for successful alternative development work once conditions are conducive thereto. First, opium poppy cultivation is concentrated in a small number of well-defined areas. In 2000 and 1999, as in previous years, 76 per cent of the opium poppy fields were found in just two provinces, Helmand and Nangarhar, and 92 per cent of the entire cultivation was in 6 of the 30 provinces of Afghanistan. Secondly, even in 1999, the year of the record harvest in Afghanistan, only 1.1 per cent of its arable land was given over to opium poppy cultivation. Thirdly, measured against the large global profits, the profit share derived from illicit opium poppy cultivation is incredibly small for Afghanistan. UNDCP has been continuously urging the Taliban authorities to bring the alarming illicit drug production in that country under control. In June 2000 the Taliban supreme leader issued a decree on the total ban of opium poppy cultivation for the next plantation season. The UNDCP opium poppy survey in 2001 will reveal whether the ban was implemented successfully.

128. Prices fluctuate very significantly, according to demand and supply. As a result of the record opium production in 1999, prices for opium collapsed in early 2000, with prices for 1 kilogram of opium reaching only 30 United States dollars ($), down from over $60 in 1999. The price fluctuations were a direct result of the surplus opium on the market. For 1999 and 2000, the total income from opium should not be much higher for Afghanistan. The farm-gate price for the production of opium in 2000 was estimated at $90 million, compared with $180 million in 1999. The halving of the retail price of opium in 2000 has almost entirely offset the doubling in production of opium in 1999. Prices of opium may increase significantly should many farmers abide by the decree on the total ban of the cultivation of the opium poppy during the current season.

129. For the past three years, UNDCP has been working with local communities in four districts in Nangarhar and Qandahar provinces to develop a generic alternative development methodology for Afghanistan. The activities carried out under the pilot project aim at creating alternative sources of livelihood, increasing on- and off-farm income opportunities and improving social services and community amenities. Through participatory planning, the beneficiaries in the target districts are given the opportunity to identify and prioritize their needs with a view to their inclusion in the package of development assistance. The success of the project is reflected in the decrease in illicit cultivation in areas covered by the project, even when cultivation increased in all opium-growing areas as in 1999 and 2000. That is, however, a long-term strategy. To be implemented on a large scale, opium poppy reduction programmes would

require a return to peace, stability and commitment of a functioning State authority.

(b) South-east Asia

130. In Thailand, the programme for the control of narcotic crops had been successfully implemented, with illicit opium poppy cultivation dropping to 702 hectares and opium production at the level of 8 tons in 1999.

131. In Myanmar, the inception phase of a five-year alternative development programme in the southern Wa region, costed at $15.6 million, started implementation in 1998. The programme is targeting a major opium-producing area of the Wa region near the border with China. The objective is to significantly reduce illicit cultivation of opium poppy through a sustainable community-based approach for the reduction and eventual elimination of the opium-based economy. The key components of the programme include community development, the provision of health and education services and income-generating activities, as well as monitoring of the amount of opium produced to ensure the achievement of the desired results. In 1999, baseline ground and aerial surveys for opium poppy cultivation were completed. Poppy cultivation, land use and socio-economic data were made available. UNDCP also provided support to opium eradication programmes initiated by local communities in the northern Wa and Kokang regions, providing irrigation systems, high-yielding rice varieties and improved access to roads.

132. In May 1999, the Government of the Lao People's Democratic Republic launched a six-year programme to eliminate opium poppy cultivation by the year 2006. The alternative development programmes were initiated by the Lao National Commission for Drug Control and Supervision, with the support of UNDCP in targeting 15 priority districts in eight northern provinces. Several new initiatives began during 2000 and early 2001, including the Programme Facilitation Unit, which coordinates, monitors and supports the six-year programme, as well as new alternative development projects targeted at the highest-priority districts in Phongsali province. Alternative development in the Lao People's Democratic Republic has contributed to the improvement of the livelihood of villagers by reducing dependence on opium production and consumption. The area of opium poppy cultivation decreased by nearly 30 per cent between 1998 and 2000. In every district where alternative development projects are being implemented, a significant decrease was noticeable. Cooperation with the Asian Development Bank (ADB) has been initiated with the integration of village-based drug control activities into an ADB rural development programme.

133. In Viet Nam, UNDCP supported the $4 million Ky Son alternative development pilot project in the province of Nghe An, bordering the Lao People's Democratic Republic and covering 179,000 hectares, with a population of 57,000. The project was successfully completed in 2000. The strict government enforcement of the ban on poppy cultivation has successfully reduced illicit poppy cultivation by more than 90 per cent in the project area, which, at the start of the project, produced more opium than any other district in the country. The number of traditional opium addicts was reduced from 2,800 in 1994 to less than 500 in 2000. The village-based initiatives and activities under the project have resulted in improved socio-economic conditions and the introduction of various alternative income-generating activities for villagers. However, an extension of the assistance is considered necessary to ensure the sustainability of the initial achievements. Accordingly, UNDCP assisted in the formulation of the second phase of the project to start in 2000, in line with the recommendations of the project evaluation.

(c) Andean region

134. Following the twentieth special session of the General Assembly, the Governments of Bolivia, Colombia and Peru formulated three individual business plans that combine the elimination of illicit drug crops with a full range of alternative development measures. Collectively, the three business plans consist of 18 projects, of which 12 are already under implementation, calling for investments essential to achieving alternative development goals: to generate agro-industries with proven markets, producing cash and food crops, wood-pulp timber and livestock; and, accompanied by the necessary infrastructure development and training, to modernize existing producers' associations. The projects pay special attention to the importance of effective promotion of competitive business practices in production and marketing as well as to environmental protection.

135. UNDCP, together with other bilateral donors, has worked in partnership with the Government of Bolivia to build capital and social infrastructure to make alternative development a viable proposition. The Bolivian "Dignity Plan" provides for the total eradication of illegal coca crops by the year 2002. Of the four components that constitute the Dignity Plan—prevention and rehabilitation, coca eradication, interdiction and alternative development—alternative development is by far the most important, accounting for 73 per cent of total investment in the Dignity Plan. The Government has approved a National Drug Prevention and Rehabilitation Plan, as an integral part of the Bolivian strategy to reduce both demand and supply of illicit drugs, in particular cocaine. An important component of the Bolivian business plan is the agroforestry programme in the Chapare region. Working together with the private sector and farmers' associations, UNDCP is demonstrating that the environmentally sound use of forests is a reliable and long-term source of income and employment for local residents. Donors working bilaterally or through UNDCP have contributed to reducing the economic dependence of farmers on coca production and to raising their standards of living. In the area of control and interdiction, UNDCP is assisting with the training of Bolivian authorities to combat drug trafficking.

136. The ongoing agroforestry programme in Bolivia was enlarged from a $3 million budget in 1998 to a total budget of $9.4 million in 2000, including a $1.2 million cost-sharing contribution from the Government of Bolivia. Some of the new funding will also deal with illicit coca cultivation in the Yungas, a region where restricted coca cultivation for traditional purposes is permitted by Bolivian law, but which is increasingly being used also for illicit cultivation. Seven hundred and fifty families will receive technical support from the programme mainly to improve coffee production in the area, especially organic coffee for export. The agroforestry programme works directly with over 1,800 families in the Chapare, organized as shareholders in forest management units, and supports the processing and marketing of forestry products, including timber and cash crops such as palm heart, oranges, passion fruit, rubber and bananas. The forestry management programmes now cover 4,000 hectares in the Chapare. Wood products from environmentally sound forestry management systems are especially promising, yielding some former coca growers up to $4,720 per hectare per year, with a potential to grow to $6,000 per hectare per year in seven to eight years. For comparison, the average income from illicit coca cultivation was about $2,900 per hectare per year. Equally important, the programme assists local and national authorities with the rehabilitation of soils previously degraded by coca cultivation. In late 2000 a forestry technical centre was established at the province level to ensure the sustainability of project results after the end of the programme.

137. The second business plan project for Bolivia, worth $5 million, started in late 2000 and aims at training 8,500 young people in 350 training courses in different agricultural and non-agricultural professions, as well as supporting the integration of trained people into the labour market and promoting the creation of micro-enterprises. The third business plan project assists the Bolivian Government in establishing an integrated national planning, management and monitoring system for alternative development and better coordination of domestic and external resources.

138. Under the Peruvian business plan, UNDCP allocated $6.4 million during the year 2000 to alternative development projects, including support to the national drug control commission (CONTRADROGAS), and a national monitoring system of coca cultivation based on satellite images, aerial photography and ground surveys. Alternative development projects now cover four major coca-growing zones in the Lower Huallaga, the Pichis-Palcazu valleys (known as Selva Central), the Inambari-Tambopata valleys (known as Puno Selva) and the Apurimac valley. Technical assistance provided under the projects continued to focus on direct support to producer organizations, on technical packages for improving production schemes for traditional crops such as cacao and coffee, including a growing proportion of organically grown coffee, and on the exploration of niche products. Business-oriented management practices for agro-industrial enterprises, including palm-oil and palm-heart production, have shown a promising market potential. Furthermore, UNDCP supported improved cattle-breeding in the Selva Central project, which, in the remote Inambari-Tambopata region near the Bolivian border, is upgrading rural road infrastructure.

139. However, due to financial constraints, project activities in the Apurimac, the Inambari-Tambopata and the Selva Central were carried out on a smaller scale than originally planned. Although some funding gaps could be bridged thanks to donor funds received in 2000, the budget situation remains difficult in early 2001. In addition, the tense political situation as well as the social unrest emerging in the Huallaga in connection with eradication campaigns of the Government at times slowed down the implementation process.

140. Under the Colombian business plan, UNDCP delivered $2.3 million for alternative development activities in 2000. UNDCP continued to assist the Office of the National Alternative Development Plan (PLANTE) at the national, regional and municipal levels in the formulation and implementation of productive projects for regions earmarked for alternative development. Emphasis was placed on ensuring that the projects are integrated into the regional and municipal development plans. Despite prevailing violence, UNDCP continued to support agricultural extension services reaching 2,200 families in the departments of Bolivar, Caqueta, Cauca, Nariño, Meta and Putumayo. A second business plan project, "Alternative development for Meta-Caqueta" started in 1999. About 415 farm families received training and extension services in dual-purpose cattle-breeding and banana production, and about 100 families were provided with improved cattle. UNDCP also helped to prepare a $5 million project for improved cattle-breeding in the departments of Caqueta and Nariño, which will start activities in 2001.

141. UNDCP also continued its support to the establishment of a monitoring system for illicit crops that will enable the identification and quantification of illicit coca and opium poppy cultivation as well as progress made in alternative development. The system will produce nationwide data on illicit crops at the end of 2001.

3. Action by Governments on the eradication of illicit drug crops and on alternative development as reported in the biennial questionnaire

142. Of the 81 Governments submitting the biennial questionnaires, a maximum of 31 (38 per cent) addressed the questions in the part related to the action plan on international cooperation on the eradication of illicit drug crops and alternative development. The average number of replies was about 20 to 25, the equivalent of from 25 to 31 per cent of the total replies to the biennial questionnaire.

143. Governments were asked whether they have a national plan or programmes, including alternative development, to reduce and eventually eliminate the cultivation of illicit drug crops.

144. Several Governments, including most of those replying (26) to section VI of the questionnaire, indicated that they had adopted comprehensive national plans to reduce and eliminate the cultivation of illicit drug crops, including programmes for alternative development. For countries directly affected by illicit cultivation of the coca bush (Bolivia, Colombia and Peru) and the opium poppy (Colombia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Pakistan), comprehensive alternative development programmes have been developed or enhanced since the special session, with additional support provided by the international community and direct investment by Governments. That has contributed to the significant progress in the eradication of the coca bush in Bolivia and Peru and of the opium poppy in the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Pakistan.

145. Several other States indicated that while they had established a national programme to eradicate illicit crops, there was no accompanying alternative development programmes, particularly when eradication of cannabis was involved. That was principally due to the lack of funding and technical support from the international community.

146. Some States neighbouring drug-producing countries have begun developing an action plan for the eradication of illicit crops and for promoting alternative development in border areas where illicit cultivation of the opium poppy, the coca bush and cannabis have been detected.

147. In Colombia, alternative development programmes were undertaken within the framework of the peace process (involving implementation of the 1998-2002 development plan, "Change to build peace"), together with the Plan Colombia, designed to expand alternative development programmes to eliminate the coca bush and the opium poppy.

148. Specialized agencies have been established to initiate or coordinate the implementation of the national alternative development programmes. The specialized agencies operated with the support of ministries and agencies responsible for various economic and social sectors, in particular agriculture, health, education, social welfare, information, justice and law enforcement, rural and social development, regional development and the environment. Of the 26 States replying to section VI of the questionnaire, 22 mentioned the competent ministries, agencies and private entities managing or involved in alternative development. In addition to government agencies, private businesses, the provincial and municipal authorities and non-governmental organizations were also involved in alternative development programmes.

149. Thirty-one Governments, the largest number replying to section VI of the questionnaire, reported that their national plans or programmes included eradication or other enforcement measures to ensure the reduction and eventual elimination of the cultivation of illicit drug crops.

150. In several countries, measures to identify and eradicate illicit crops, using aerial and land-based equipment and law enforcement programmes and economic incentives targeting the rural population, were an integral part of the alternative development programme.

151. The eradication of illicit crops was a cornerstone of the strategy. The sowing cycles of opium poppy and cannabis, as well as of vegetable growth, are taken into account in developing eradication programmes. Aerial reconnaissance is used for the detection of illicit crops or sowing areas. In most cases, the destruction of illicit crops is done manually. Some States, such as Mexico and South Africa, reported that the destruction of illicit crops is done by aerial spraying of herbicides. Investigations of criminal activities related to illicit cultivation and production are undertaken to destroy the criminal organizations involved.

152. Some States indicated that their programmes mainly focused on the eradication of cannabis cultivation and did not include development programmes. While the United States had a national plan for the eradication of illicit crops, it does not promote alternative development as a method for reducing illicit cultivation, but rather emphasizes law enforcement activities aimed at seizing and destroying the crops. Several Governments reported on efforts to eradicate illicit cannabis cultivation. The Dangerous Drugs Board of the Philippines is conducting a study entitled "Bacteriological experiment on marijuana plants destruction".

153. Several States have developed programmes for the eradication of cannabis herb plantations. In Australia, helicopters of the National Parks and Wildlife Service are used to detect cannabis cultivation in national parks; forward-looking infrared radar is used to detect hydroponically cultivated crops and determine the location of such crops.

154. More than a half of the Governments replying (16) to section VI of the questionnaire have adopted programmes of alternative development or measures aimed at forced eradication in areas of agricultural production of low profitability. In several countries, such as Mexico, programmes to eradicate illicit drug crops and rural development programmes were jointly implemented both in regions with a high incidence of illicit cultivation of narcotic crops and in those at risk of becoming zones of illicit production. It was noted that some of the regions with a high incidence of illicit crop cultivation were not suitable for agricultural production.

155. Alternative development requires long-term and sustained funding. Several Governments (13) indicated that fund-raising mechanisms were institutionalized or planned regularly for alternative development and/or other ways of eradicating illicit narcotic crops. In Bolivia, Colombia and Pakistan, funding for alternative development was provided through bilateral and multilateral agreements as well as through the national budget and donations from public and private institutions. The national agency responsible for alternative development usually plays the key role in fund-raising. In other cases, funding for alternative development was exclusively from the national budget. The Government of the Philippines is reaching out to farmers, extending financial support and providing training on modern ways and techniques of farming, as part of its efforts to counter illicit cultivation of cannabis.

156. Governments were asked how they were financing programmes for the eradication of illicit narcotic crops and for alternative development. Twenty-four Governments provided information on the manner in which programmes for the eradication of

illicit narcotic crops and for alternative development were financed. Half of them indicated that programmes for the eradication of illicit narcotic crops and for alternative development were being financed exclusively from the national budget. Other Governments were complementing resources allocated from the national budget for the eradication of illicit crops by international assistance from bilateral or multilateral sources, including UNDCP. In some cases (six), resources were allocated to the police for eradication purposes.

157. New initiatives for financing programmes had been launched. In Colombia, alternative development programmes were being financed from the national budget, from loans contracted with the Inter-American Development Bank, and from contributions from agencies of international cooperation. In the Philippines, the Government extends low-interest loans to farmers through private banks and cooperatives as a means of providing alternative source of livelihood.

158. Alternative development requires a broad scope of technical expertise. While 24 Governments indicated that they had the technical expertise to initiate alternative development programmes, six noted that they lacked such expertise. Some States were providing funding and technical assistance to developing countries through their technical assistance programmes. Ten governments replied that they had received technical assistance for alternative development or for programmes to eradicate illicit drug crops; some of them indicated that a share of the financial resources received had come from bilateral and other sources.

159. Fourteen developing countries indicated that they had not received any technical assistance for eradication of illicit crops or alternative development, either from bilateral or multilateral sources. Those Governments reported that efforts to eradicate illicit crops were being funded from resources available at the national level, and for the most part from the national budget allocated to law enforcement. Other Governments were funding efforts to eradicate illicit crops by devoting a significant share of the national budget to alternative development, complemented by resources from the general public or private institutions. An important source of technical and financial assistance was provided through contributions from bilateral or multilateral sources.

160. Governments were asked to report on the assistance provided to other States, on a bilateral, regional or multilateral basis, for alternative development programmes to eradicate illicit narcotic crops. Thirteen Governments indicated that they were assisting other States on a bilateral, regional or multilateral basis. While not affected directly by illicit cultivation, some developed countries were providing technical assistance at the bilateral or multilateral level, particularly through UNDCP or other multilateral mechanisms such as the Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission (CICAD) of the Organization of American States (OAS), in the case of the United States, to support countries in their efforts to eradicate illicit crops through alternative development.

161. The Canadian International Development Agency supported poverty reduction programmes in areas affected by illicit cultivation or adjacent thereto, providing viable alternatives to illicit cultivation of narcotic crops and reducing the need for farmers to turn to illicit cultivation as a result of poverty. Spain provided 80 million pesetas for alternative development in 1999, including debt cancellation for alternative development in Peru. In 1999, the United States provided $63 million for programmes in Bolivia, Colombia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Pakistan, Peru and Thailand, directly or through agencies, such as UNDCP and CICAD. The United Kingdom is supporting UNDCP projects for alternative development in Bolivia, Peru and Pakistan, investing 6.8 million pounds sterling. German bilateral assistance programmes have, since 1990, assisted Bolivia, Colombia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Peru, through bilateral technical cooperation projects and programmes implemented by the German Agency for Technical Cooperation, with a budget of 255 million deutsche mark (DM), or about $23 million, between 1981 and 1999. In addition, at the multilateral level, Germany has supported alternative development cooperation provided to Afghanistan, Bolivia, Colombia, Pakistan, Peru, Thailand and Viet Nam, implemented by UNDCP, amounting to DM 70 million, or approximately $35 million, between 1981 and 1999. Japan, through its bilateral cooperation programme, provided 800 million yen to Peru in 1998 for alternative crops.

162. The General Assembly has urged international financial institutions and regional development banks to conclude financial assistance agreements for alternative development. Four States have negotiated

agreements for alternative development with financial institutions or regional development banks and received positive support. Other States were seeking to increase funding from national and international sources. Colombia was financing its alternative development programmes by loans from the Inter-American Development Bank. Private banks and cooperatives were extending low-interest loans to farmers. Fourteen developing countries replying to the question had not negotiated financial assistance agreements for alternative development with international financial institutions.

163. Institution-building at the local and regional levels and community activities are important pillars for the programmes of alternative development and eradication of illicit crops. Thirteen States reported that support was being provided to institution-building at the local and regional levels and that support to community activities was being extended through programmes of alternative development and eradication of illicit crops. Technical and financial assistance had been provided to support institution-building at the municipal level and to strengthen producers organizations in Bolivia. In several countries, alternative development plans were prepared with the participation of the local community, the municipal and departmental administrations and local and State authorities. They were directly involved in the design and conduct of specific projects on, for example, animal-breeding, timber-planting and seed crops, targeting villages where the opium poppy is grown. It was indicated that a major focus of technical assistance provided to developing countries in alternative development was to strengthen institution-building at local, national and regional levels. In Colombia, regional alternative development plans were prepared with the cooperation of the community, municipal and departmental administrations, decentralized institutions and PLANTE. One of the strategies of PLANTE was to strengthen State-community relations in zones of conflict, through a participatory approach. In other States, such as Nigeria, there is an ongoing community mobilization programme. The participatory approach permits the establishment and support of village committees, as was the case in Senegal.

164. Governments were to indicate whether consideration was given to a set of factors in alternative development. Fifteen Governments replied to the question. Participatory approaches in alternative development were taken into consideration by 13 States, the gender dimension by 11, the poorest and most vulnerable population groups by 13, environmental concerns by 15, measures for reducing illicit drug demand by 13 and traditional medical practices by 11.

165. Monitoring of illicit cultivation, including the displacement of illicit cultivation, is an essential part of a strategy to eliminate illicit crops. Thirty-one Governments replied that mechanisms such as satellite, aerial and ground surveys were used in their countries for monitoring illicit cultivation, including the displacement of illicit cultivation, and that the information was shared with national, regional and international organizations. Four of those Governments indicated that a combination of satellite imagery, aerial photographs and ground surveys were used. Aerial and ground surveys were used in eight countries for the identification of cannabis plantations, while another eight States used ground-based surveys for monitoring illicit cultivation of cannabis and opium poppy.

166. Several States, such as Bolivia and Colombia, were exploring means to strengthen their illicit-crop-monitoring capacity, including the utilization of remote sensing and the compilation of geographical information, with the support of UNDCP and donors such as France and the European Union. It was indicated that the objective was to establish an information system within the framework of the United Nations, as requested in the Commission resolution 42/3.

167. Fourteen Governments indicated that they have systems of monitoring and evaluation of the qualitative and quantitative impact of programmes of alternative development and eradication of illicit narcotic crops. Eleven replies indicated that indicators were used to measure the impact of the programmes. As an example, the following indicators were used to gauge the qualitative and quantitative impact of programmes for eradication in Bolivia: (a) value of the coca subeconomy (cocaine in relation to GDP); (b) area of illicit coca cultivation in relation to that of licit agricultural crop cultivation in the Chapare (the region with the highest surplus of illicit coca production); (c) net eradication of coca crops. In Colombia, PLANTE has developed a baseline for a representative sample of municipalities, which is examined each year to determine the progress in the programme and its impact. In Mexico, the indicators include the displacement of illicit crops to different sites, modification in

the production cycles and dispersion and modification in the size of the plots. In other countries, such as Lebanon and the Philippines, the indicators include the price of illicit drugs, the quantity and value of drugs seized in the country and the quantity of the drug seized abroad and originating in the country. Evaluation constitutes a basic element for the planning and, as appropriate, reorienting of eradication efforts. Some States providing technical assistance for alternative development indicated that monitoring and evaluation was an integral part of technical and financial cooperation programmes. The indicators used for evaluation by some of those States included progress in living conditions, the environmental situation and institutional arrangements.

168. To gauge progress in eradicating illicit crops, Governments have to assess the impact of their enforcement and alternative development measures on a regular basis. Eighteen States reported that they assessed the impact of their enforcement and alternative development measures annually or regularly. In several countries, crop eradication programmes were evaluated regularly throughout the year and analysed at the end of each cannabis and opium production cycle. In some cases, the assessment was done on an ad hoc basis rather than following a regular time frame.

169. Law enforcement measures are essential to control illicit crop cultivation and to accompany alternative development programmes. Twenty-eight States reported that they were taking law enforcement measures to control illicit crop cultivation and to accompany alternative development programmes. In general, areas affected by illicit cultivation were under constant surveillance and subject to regular eradication operations. The reporting States also referred to the organizations involved. The law enforcement action taken included eradication by aerial spraying of cannabis fields with herbicides, manual eradication, surveillance of suspicious cultivated areas, the use of agents and informants for locating plantations, regular and annual nationwide campaigns of eradication of cannabis and opium poppy, penal actions including imprisonment for illicit cultivation when organized crime is involved, preventive education and public information campaigns. In Bolivia, the law enforcement measures included forced eradication of new plantations and destruction of coca seedbeds.

170. To support rural communities, Governments have initiated new programmes to improve the economic framework for alternative development. Thirteen Governments indicated that current or planned activities were designed to improve the economic framework for alternative development, for example, in the field of marketing.

C. Measures to promote judicial cooperation

171. In paragraph 16 of the Political Declaration, adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, Member States undertook to promote multilateral, regional and subregional cooperation among judicial and law enforcement authorities to deal with criminal organizations involved in drug offences and related criminal activities. To that end, States are encouraged to review and, where appropriate, to strengthen by the year 2003 the implementation of measures to promote judicial cooperation adopted at the special session, which include extradition, mutual legal assistance, the transfer of proceedings and other forms of cooperation such as controlled delivery and maritime cooperation.

172. The international drug control treaties provide the framework for international cooperation. As of 1 December 2000, the treaties enjoyed almost universal adherence. Since the special session, 11 States have become parties to the 1988 Convention, bringing the number of parties to that Convention to 158; 10 States have become parties to the Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs of 1961[23] and that Convention as amended by the 1972 Protocol,[24] bringing the number of parties to 172 States; and 9 States have become parties to the Convention on Psychotropic Substances of 1971, bringing the number of parties to 167.

173. Efforts to promote judicial cooperation to fight illicit drug trafficking must remain a high priority. Bringing key traffickers to justice has demonstrated that the trafficking organizations were highly vulnerable to coordinated and sustained international pressure, and they have continued to suffer setbacks as Governments have pursued their leaders. For example, a joint law enforcement operation involving representatives of Colombia, Mexico and the United States resulted in the arrest of 30 major traffickers, disrupting

an international drug-trafficking network extending to the United States and Europe.

174. A well-functioning legal system plays a fundamental role in all drug control efforts. However, the absence of adequate legal frameworks in many developing, transition and post-conflict States undermines both domestic and international drug control efforts. For example, an evaluation of the 14 SADCs revealed that: licit control legislation was seriously outdated in one State (Lesotho); penalties for all serious drug-trafficking offences were inadequate; only three of those States could confiscate precursors involved in precursor offences; most of them have found it difficult to obtain a court ruling in favour of final confiscation of assets derived from drug trafficking; no SADC State provides for the transfer of proceedings; and no legislation has yet been adopted in SADC States to facilitate cooperation with other parties to the 1988 Convention in taking steps against vessels suspected of drug trafficking outside their territorial waters. In addition, most still lack a functional national drug control coordinating body and a national drug control action plan or national strategy.

1. Extradition

175. Extradition remained a key tool in judicial cooperation, and Governments were increasingly signing and implementing agreements on extradition, as called for by the 1988 Convention. In some jurisdictions, national legislation had been amended to enable the extradition of nationals for serious drug-trafficking offences. The 1988 Convention and the measures adopted at the special session sought to break down two major obstacles that have long impeded effective extradition cooperation between States—the "prima-facie-case" rule of many States with a common-law tradition and the non-extradition of nationals of many States with a civil-law tradition. Stringent application of those rules often means that extradition is refused, with the result that justice is not done at all, or not done effectively. Several States with a common-law system are modifying their rules of evidence to facilitate extradition, for example, by enabling courts to receive and act on evidence contained in certified case files of judicial officers (investigating magistrates, judicial prosecutors and trial judges) in States with a civil-law system. The latter States are tending to change their laws to permit temporary conditional extradition. However, too many States with a common-law tradition still stringently apply the traditional prima-facie-case rule, and the mainly civil-law States admit that their laws still preclude or seriously limit the extradition of nationals. Forty-five per cent of the Governments replying to the biennial questionnaire indicated that the laws in their countries precluded or seriously limited the extradition of nationals. There have been some positive developments. Most of the Governments (90 per cent) reported that they have adopted legislation contemplating extradition procedures in their countries. Several Governments replying to the questionnaire (32 per cent) have simplified the procedures for extradition. For example, in Argentina, Colombia, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia, procedures have been simplified for extradition, consistent with the constitutional principles and the basic concepts of their legal systems. A new comprehensive extradition law was adopted in Canada in 1999; and, in Venezuela, the new Code of Criminal Procedures, which sets out the extradition procedure, was adopted.

176. The 1988 Convention and the measures adopted at the special session encourage States to enter into agreements or arrangements to enhance judicial cooperation. In the field of extradition, 70 per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had entered into agreements with other States, including regional extradition treaties, such as the European Convention on Extradition, or bilateral extradition treaties or agreements applicable to a broad range of offences, including drug offences.

177. In addition, new legislation on extradition was currently under consideration in Ethiopia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and the Philippines. Many European States had amended or were in the process of amending their domestic legislation to comply with the provisions of the European Convention on Extradition. In some cases, where there was no national legislation on extradition, extradition could be granted on the basis of international agreements on extradition.

178. Governments were requested to establish a competent authority or authorities designated to receive, respond to and process requests for extradition. Such designation would greatly enhance the field of extradition and expedite requests. A competent authority or authorities had been established in most of the States replying (81 per cent). The

competent authorities indicated included ministries of foreign affairs, the office of Attorney-General, ministries of justice and the branch of the national police responsible for cooperation with the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol).

2. Mutual legal assistance

179. The recommendations adopted at the special session and the 1988 Convention seek to establish and strengthen mutual legal assistance to address serious crimes more effectively. Several Governments (25 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had reviewed procedures for mutual legal assistance. A large number of States have now adopted laws on mutual legal assistance, in line with the 1988 Convention and the recommendations adopted at the special session, in order to make a global impact against drug trafficking and serious offences. Most of the Governments (77 per cent) have adopted national legislation permitting and facilitating cooperation in the field of mutual legal assistance. According to the replies to the questionnaire, several Governments did not have national legislation to facilitate mutual legal assistance.

180. Regional organizations have often spearheaded initiatives to strengthen mutual legal assistance. Subregional mechanisms such as the Police and Customs Cooperation in the Nordic countries and the European Judicial Network within the European Union have enhanced cooperation in mutual legal assistance. There has also been intense bilateral treaty-making. A considerable number of States replying to the questionnaire (66 per cent) indicated that they had concluded bilateral agreements in the area of mutual legal assistance.

181. Effective cooperation in mutual legal assistance requires rapid responses by requesting States. In practice, that means fast and effective teamwork, communication, coordination and problem-solving in both requesting and requested States. However, difficulties were still encountered by several Governments. Some States often had insuffficient trained personnel, infrastructure and equipment, either to make requests or to respond promptly and effectively to requests. However, several Governments have taken measures to respond promptly to requests for mutual legal assistance. Most of the Governments (80 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had designated a central authority or authorities with the power to make and execute, or to transmit for execution, requests for mutual legal assistance. The designated central authority or authorities included the Ministry of Justice, the Secretariat of the Supreme Court of Justice, the Office of the Public Prosecutor or the Federal Police. However, of the 167 States parties to the 1988 Convention, only 110 have notified particulars of their central authorities to the Secretary-General as called for by the Convention.

182. A noticeable effort has been undertaken by Governments in the sharing of information between competent national authorities, an essential prerequisite to countering drug trafficking. Many Governments (81 per cent) have taken measures to exchange information on procedures, domestic legislation and practices, and established or expanded exchange programmes for law enforcement personnel. That has been supplemented by training and other forms of cooperation. Bilateral cooperation agreements, channels and procedures have been established for the exchange of information relevant to the investigation of criminal organizations and for the processing of requests for mutual legal assistance and extradition. The model treaties developed by the United Nations have provided guidelines for such agreements. Several Governments (48 per cent) indicated that they had based their agreements on those model treaties. Some indicated that extradition and mutual legal assistance treaties negotiated prior to the preparation of the model treaties were consistent with their provisions. Those provisions had also been used in more recent treaty negotiations.

183. Several Governments (65 per cent) indicated that they used modern communications technology and secure procedures to facilitate the exchange of information with the competent authorities of other States. For example, in Australia, regular use of modern communications technology was made, including video links, to obtain witness statements and testimony in foreign proceedings. To facilitate cooperation, several Governments (32 per cent) have developed model forms, guides or manuals on how to assist other States in preparing appropriate requests for judicial cooperation. In Colombia, a manual has been issued on the exchange of evidence with foreign Governments, to be consulted in formulating requests for judicial assistance from abroad. Likewise, the

European Judicial Network is preparing requests for judicial cooperation and guidelines for the relevant authorities.

3. Transfer of proceedings

184. The 1988 Convention and the recommendations of the special session encourage States to transfer between them criminal prosecution proceedings where such transfer may be in the interest of the proper administration of justice, in particular if their legal systems are similar and they do not extradite their own nationals. Almost half of the Governments (47 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that they were able to transfer proceedings for criminal prosecution.

185. Since the special session, there have been new developments in domestic legislation related to the transfer of proceedings in some countries. A smaller number of States (24 per cent) have concluded agreements with other States for the transfer of proceedings in criminal matters. Bilateral agreements or arrangements on mutual legal assistance facilitated court action and the transfer of files, dossiers and evidence. Such cooperation has been widely and satisfactorily used by a number of States, in particular those in close proximity to each other and having good ongoing relations at the political and operational levels.

4. Trafficking by sea

186. Drug trafficking by sea, especially through bulk shipments of illicit substances, remains a major challenge to the law enforcement community. To counter the threat, several Governments (61 per cent) indicated that their national legislation permitted and facilitated judicial cooperation against illicit drug trafficking by sea. Thirty-three per cent of the States replying indicated that they had entered into agreements concerning illicit trafficking by sea. New measures have been adopted by some States (15 per cent of the replies) to counter such trafficking. States in the Caribbean reported that they had recently strengthened their maritime cooperation by sharing operational intelligence and strategic information, thus facilitating the conduct of operations and the seizure of substantial quantities of drugs. Several Governments noted that they were exploring ways of giving greater effect to the provisions of article 17 of the 1988 Convention. Many States still lack the legislation necessary to enable them to give consent to another State to board, search and seize, if evidence of drug trafficking involving vessels flying its flag is found, and to establish criminal jurisdiction over such vessels in case of serious offences.

5. Controlled delivery

187. The technique of controlled delivery remains a major asset for drug law enforcement authorities. More than half of the Governments replying to the questionnaire (54 per cent) indicated that their national legislation allowed the use of the technique of controlled delivery. Several States have reviewed, simplified and strengthened procedures in connection with controlled delivery. New developments in national legislation regarding the use of controlled deliveries was reported by some Governments (12 per cent). New legislation was adopted in Australia, Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Pakistan, Spain and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, or was under preparation in Bangladesh, France, India and Sri Lanka.

6. Protection of judges, witnesses and expert witnesses

188. The protection of witnesses has been addressed by several Governments. One third of the States replying to the questionnaire (32 per cent) have amended their national legislation or adopted new provisions to facilitate the protection of witnesses involved in criminal proceedings. Equally, several Governments (20 per cent) have reviewed their national legislation to further enhance the implementation of the 1988 Convention and ensure the protection of judges, prosecutors and other members of surveillance and law enforcement agencies in cases that involved illicit drug trafficking and other serious crimes. For example, in Colombia, new legislation has revised the protection programme for witnesses, victims and persons involved in penal proceedings and their family members. In Mexico, the Federal Organized Crime Law provided for the protection of persons, in particular judges, expert witnesses, victims and other persons involved in criminal proceedings. In Trinidad and Tobago, the National Justice Protection Programme provided for the protection of all persons involved in criminal proceedings, including judges, law enforcement personnel and witnesses. In Turkey, the Law on Prevention of Profit-oriented Criminal

Organizations included provisions on the protection of surveillance personnel and law enforcement officers. In Ukraine, new legislation provided for the protection of judicial and law enforcement personnel, their relatives and persons participating in criminal proceedings. And in the United States, security measures were designed to protect all federal employees, including judges, prosecutors and law enforcement officers, with severe punishment imposed for the killing of a federal officer.

189. Several Governments (66 per cent of the total replies) have a designated national authority concerned with criminal investigation techniques and strategies. Several States, such as Colombia, Haiti, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Panama, Sao Tome and Principe and Switzerland, indicated that they had not designated an authority responsible for criminal investigation techniques and strategies. Some States reported changes with regard to the central authority responsible for such techniques and strategies. In Spain, statutory power was conferred on undercover agents for investigations involving organized crime and the scope of controlled deliveries has been extended.

190. Most of the Governments (85 per cent) replying to the questionnaire have established specialized units for investigating drug-trafficking cases. Eighty-two per cent have enhanced technical cooperation, training and human resources development programmes for law enforcement personnel. That has included training in drug control and interdiction of trafficking of arms and chemical precursors by sea.

191. Most Governments (80 per cent) have enhanced cooperation at the operational level by adopting measures to strengthen cooperation with law enforcement agencies and judicial authorities of other States. Those programmes included mechanisms for the exchange of tactical, operational and strategic information on the interception of illicit drug consignments and the investigation of criminal organizations.

D. Action Plan against Illicit Manufacture, Trafficking and Abuse of Amphetamine-type Stimulants and Their Precursors

192. In paragraph 13 of the Political Declaration adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, Member States decided to devote particular attention to the emerging trends in the illicit manufacture, trafficking and consumption of synthetic drugs, and called for the establishment or strengthening by the year 2003 of national legislation and programmes giving effect to the Action Plan against Illicit Manufacture, Trafficking and Abuse of Amphetamine-type Stimulants and Their Precursors. The Action Plan recommends action in five key areas: raising awareness of the problem of ATS; reducing demand for illicit ATS; providing accurate information; limiting supply; and strengthening the control system for ATS and their precursors. ATS most frequently abused and sold illicitly include amphetamine, methamphetamine, MDA, MDE, MDMA, commonly known as Ecstasy, and methcathinone, which are mainly manufactured in clandestine laboratories.

193. The nature of ATS problem sets specific challenges at the national, regional and global levels. Some of the characteristics of ATS, such as the simple and flexible manufacturing techniques, readily available raw materials, high profit margins for traffickers and low prices for consumers, are incentives that have led to an expansion of illicit markets. ATS have a benign image, perceived as safe and harmless, in spite of increasing evidence of long-term toxicity. Recent studies on Ecstasy have found severe psychiatric and neurocognitive consequences resulting from long-term use. At the same time, ATS can seriously affect the psychological and mental state of the user. They cause dependence and carry an addiction risk that is as high as that of cocaine. They also lead to increasing tolerance levels, requiring ever-higher doses to achieve the same mood-elevating effects.

1. Implementing the global framework

194. The international drug control treaties, complemented by the resolutions and decisions of the Economic and Social Council, the Commission and the International Narcotics Control Board, provide the framework for international cooperation to address the illicit manufacture, trafficking and abuse of ATS. Most Governments (80 per cent) replying to the questionnaire reported that they had implemented the provisions of the international drug control treaties and the relevant resolutions and decisions or recommendations of the Council, the Commission and the Board relating to synthetic drugs and ATS. The measures applicable to ATS were included in national laws and

regulations, and several Governments provided specific information on their efforts to address the various aspects of the problem of ATS. In some countries, however, the international drug control treaties had been only partially implemented, and national legislation was being amended or new regulations were being adopted to implement the treaty provisions relating to ATS.

2. Raising awareness of the problem of amphetamine-type stimulants

195. Most Governments (60 per cent) reported that they had adopted measures to raise awareness of the problem of ATS. Several Governments have launched national prevention campaigns and comprehensive strategies to reduce the demand for and abuse of illicit drugs, including ATS. Mass media campaigns, interactive media, the Internet, telephone hotlines, sports events, counselling centres, seminars and workshops and written materials, such as leaflets, brochures, school curricula and syllabuses have been used in the majority of the reporting States as vehicles to inform health-care professionals, teachers and other target groups about the dangers of ATS. In some countries, increased efforts were being made to inform youth, parents and mentors of the harmful effects of ATS.

196. Since the special session, there has been a marked improvement in sharing knowledge about ATS, including the negative effects of ATS abuse, among the groups at risk in many countries. Well-targeted activities in countries strongly affected by ATS during the 1990s, in particular France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States, have led to a stabilization or even a decline in ATS markets in North America, western Europe and Japan. Those activities have included, in addition to raising awareness at local and national levels, demand reduction measures, in particular prevention, an increased focus by law enforcement agencies on ATS trafficking and improvement in the legislative arsenal and precursor control. However, in east and south-east Asia, trafficking and abuse of ATS have continued to grow.

3. Reducing demand for illicit amphetamine-type stimulants

197. Reducing demand for illicit ATS remains a key component of the global strategy adopted at the special session. More than half (57 per cent) of the Governments replying to the questionnaire reported that measures had been taken to reduce the illicit demand for ATS. National demand reduction campaigns and programmes directed against illicit drugs focused on ATS abuse. The measures taken included education, prevention, treatment, monitoring, evaluation and research projects to prevent drug abuse and addiction. In several countries in Europe and south-east Asia, controls at entertainment sites and discotheques have been strengthened. In Ireland, for example, health-service personnel and the police have informed the staff of nightclubs of the dangers of ATS. In Italy, an agreement on special measures to be taken in discotheques has been signed between the Government and the national association of discotheque owners.

198. To adopt appropriate strategies to better target the illicit demand for ATS, it is essential that Governments establish a reliable set of data on ATS abuse patterns. However, less than half (46 per cent) of the Governments replying to the questionnaire reported on measures adopted to monitor the illicit demand for and abuse of ATS. Epidemiological surveys, national health surveys and household and school surveys have been conducted by several Governments. One third of the replies (33 per cent) indicated that the information collected was used, in the majority of cases, as benchmark data for monitoring and evaluating the national drug control strategies. Information systems and national databases have been set up in several countries to evaluate and monitor the demand for and abuse of ATS. A number of Governments reported on novel initiatives to counter the illicit manufacture, abuse and trafficking of ATS. The States members of the European Union reported that they were implementing the Joint Action of 16 June 1997 adopted by the Council of Ministers on the basis of article K.3 of the Treaty on European Union, concerning the information exchange, risk assessment and the control of new synthetic drugs. To further cooperation against the ATS threat, an early warning system for new synthetic drugs has been established by the States members of the European Union. Both initiatives are being coordinated by EMCDDA. In Denmark, a special project has been developed concerning the trade in illicit drugs, designed to monitor, inter alia, purity levels and price, to identify and follow up new types of drugs, and to establish a model for systematic

registration and analysis of drugs on the illicit market. In France, the National System of Identification of Poisons and Substances (SINTES) project has been initiated.

199. Prevention programmes targeting youth play a critical role in countering ATS abuse. Progress should be made by more Governments in establishing such programmes targeting young people. Since ATS abuse was increasingly concentrated among youth and threatening to become a part of the mainstream culture, special emphasis has to be placed on addressing the specific needs of young people. Only 41 per cent of the Governments replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had adopted specific programmes to prevent youth from experimenting with ATS. Several of those Governments reported that school-based prevention programmes to inform youth of the harmful effects of illicit drugs, including ATS, had been carried out widely. The mass media, television commercials and printed materials were used to inform young people of the adverse effects of drug abuse. Seminars, sports events and cultural activities were also generally used to deter teenagers from experimenting with ATS. Some examples of measures taken include: a pilot project involving an early warning system for monitoring new abuse trends among young people, launched in Germany; and, in the United States, a National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign conducted in 1999, reaching more than 90 per cent of youth through advertising in 11 languages, including information on the dangers arising from the abuse of methamphetamine and Ecstasy. Given the importance of prevention among youth, several Governments with successful programmes targeting specific age-groups have shared their positive experience, encouraging others to replicate that experience at the national level.

4. Providing accurate information on amphetamine-type stimulants

200. Governments have the prime responsibility to provide accurate information on ATS. International cooperation is essential to address the problems arising from the unscrupulous use of Internet web sites to facilitate the illicit sale of controlled substances and their precursors. Governments are urged to guard against such exploitation by operators in the illicit drug market. To date, only a limited number of Governments (16 per cent) replying to the questionnaires have so far taken measures to counter the use of the Internet as a vehicle to promote the recreational use of illicit drugs and to prevent information related to illicit drugs from being disseminated on the Internet. Law enforcement authorities in several States that have taken such measures constantly monitor the Internet for web sites that incite people to commit drug offences, including the promotion of abuse of controlled drugs, their illicit manufacture and trafficking. Some Governments have established regulatory frameworks for the control of illegal or highly offensive material published or transmitted through on-line services such as the Internet. Regulatory schemes or advisory boards for Internet service providers have also been set up in some countries in Europe. Some Governments were concerned about the use of the Internet for the promotion and sale of psychotropic substances and their precursors. In the United States, medical practitioners using the Internet for the indiscriminate sale of controlled substances have been investigated and convicted, and web sites that offered or promoted the illicit sale of pharmaceuticals containing controlled substances and precursor chemicals were the subject of investigations that covered information obtained on both domestic and foreign sources of controlled substances. In addition, the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy has established a voluntary regulatory programme, known as the Verified Internet Pharmacy Practice Sites, to reassure customers that the web site from which they purchase pharmaceutical products has met all the appropriate state and federal standards.

201. Modern information technology should be used to disseminate information on the adverse health, social, and economic consequences of ATS abuse. That includes, for example, using the Internet as an instrument to reach young people. Thirty-four per cent of Governments replying to the questionnaire reported on the creation of national web sites to inform and update the public on the adverse health, social and economic consequences of drug abuse, including ATS. While there has been significant progress, more Governments should develop strategies for using all the means provided by modern information technology to disseminate information on the adverse consequences of ATS abuse.

202. In line with the balanced approach, all initiatives to curb illicit demand for ATS should be accompanied by efforts to limit the supply of ATS. Comparatively

more attention has been given to curbing the illicit supply of ATS than to measures to counter illicit demand.

5. Limiting the supply of amphetamine-type stimulants

203. Sixty per cent of the Governments replying to the questionnaire reported taking measures to limit the supply of illicit ATS, including strengthening the control of precursors and laboratory equipment. National legislation and regulations for precursor control have been adopted in all reporting countries. Several Governments indicated that they had adopted measures to control precursors used for the illicit manufacture of ATS similar to measures applicable to precursors of other illicit drugs. They generally included controls on the manufacture, preparation, sale, purchase, import, export, transport, storage and distribution of chemical precursors used for the manufacture of ATS. Over 13 per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that measures had also been taken to monitor the availability of tableting machines and technical equipment required for the manufacture of ATS, and that strict controls had been placed on pharmaceutical laboratories manufacturing and distributing amphetamines to prevent the diversion of those pharmaceutical products into the illicit market.

204. The biennial questionnaire listed the following measures that Governments were invited to take to limit the supply of ATS: (a) enhancing cooperation with the chemical industry; (b) introducing mechanisms to deal with non-scheduled substances; (c) establishing monitoring systems to identify the clandestine manufacture and prevent the diversion of ATS; (d) carrying out drug signature analysis and profiling; and (e) preventing the diversion, irresponsible marketing and prescribing of ATS (question 63).

205. Cooperation with the chemical industry is an essential precondition to initiatives to limit the supply of precursors, playing a crucial role in preventing the diversion of ATS from licit sources. Strengthening such cooperation was being given increased attention by several Governments. Forty-four per cent of reporting Governments had established practices to enhance cooperation with the chemical industry and to reduce the supply of ATS. A third of the replies indicated that commercial and industrial entities dealing with psychotropic substances maintained regular communication, and had established voluntary cooperation activities, with the competent authorities. In some cases, the competent authorities have actively promoted collaboration with the chemical industry by organizing training, workshops or seminars to inform personnel from the chemical industry of measures to prevent the diversion of precursors into the illicit market. In some countries, codes of conduct have been established between the chemical industry, government and law enforcement agencies to promote mutual cooperation. In other countries, the chemical industry has been associated with the preparation of new regulations, or special law enforcement officials have been designated their contact persons.

206. With regard to non-scheduled substances, several States (36 per cent) have introduced mechanisms to deal with such substances. Most of them have put in place flexible administrative procedures for the inclusion of substances in the lists or tables of psychotropic substances subject to international control. Some States, such as Myanmar, New Zealand and Slovakia, were in the process of introducing new legislation to expedite or establish controls on non-scheduled substances. A special monitoring list and early warning system for new synthetic drugs has been established by the States members of the European Union. In Japan, a conference of experts has been convened annually to evaluate the potential dangers of non-scheduled substances. Within the Police and Customs Cooperation framework in the Nordic countries, a number of substances has been listed for the exchange of information on a voluntary basis.

207. The illicit ATS market is supplied through the global spread and diversification of clandestine manufacture as well as diversion from the licit market. Forty-five per cent of Governments replying to the questionnaire have taken measures to establish monitoring systems to identify the illicit manufacture of ATS and prevent their diversion. Thirty-four per cent of the Governments have adopted law enforcement measures to detect and dismantle clandestine laboratories and to prevent chemical precursors from being smuggled or diverted for use in illicit manufacture. Information systems and databases for the monitoring of illicit trafficking of synthetic drugs and clandestine laboratories have also been set up in many countries. Some European countries were involved in

several initiatives to identify illegal amphetamine manufacturing sites and the sources of diversion of ATS. Those initiatives may also have contributed to the stabilization or decline in ATS markets in North America, western Europe and Japan.

208. As part of the process leading to the twentieth special session of the General Assembly, a consultative meeting was held in Tokyo in March 1998 to review methods for the characterization and profiling of methamphetamine and other ATS. Thirty-four per cent of the reporting Governments regularly carry out signature analysis and profiling of amphetamine seizures, mostly in national forensic laboratories. Exchange of information and international cooperation on drug profiling was reported by European countries for "Ecstasy" tablets. UNDCP has supported and initiated projects to develop and promote techniques for identifying the origins of seized ATS through impurity analysis. Most recently, it has worked with law enforcement and laboratory personnel in south-east Asia to facilitate the development of an operational drug-profiling programme in the subregion. New manufacturing and trafficking trends have been identified through such projects.

209. A large number of Governments (47 per cent of those replying to the questionnaire) have taken measures to prevent the diversion, irresponsible marketing and prescribing of ATS, and several Governments have adopted regulations to control the manufacture and distribution of ATS. A medical prescription for the dispension of ATS was a requirement in the majority of the reporting countries. In that context, in the United States, the on-line sale of controlled substances and web sites that offer and promote the illicit sale of pharmaceuticals containing controlled substances and precursor chemicals were being monitored.

6. Strengthening the control system for amphetamine-type stimulants and their precursors

210. The General Assembly called on Governments to strengthen the control system for ATS and their precursors by adopting measures to be implemented at the national and international level (question 64). As indicated in the biennial questionnaire, those measures include: (a) rapidly identifying and assessing new ATS found on the illicit market; (b) speeding up the scheduling process; (c) introducing appropriate sanctions and penalties for ATS-related-offences while strengthening law enforcement efforts; (d) improving data collection; (e) improving regional cooperation; (f) introducing the "know-your-client" principle; and (g) assisting other countries in dealing with the problem of ATS.

211. The first set of measures related to the adoption of measures to rapidly identify and assess new ATS found on the illicit markets has been implemented by 38 per cent of the Governments replying to the questionnaire. Early identification and assessment of seized ATS are usually carried out in national forensic laboratories. An international network for cooperation such as the early warning system for new synthetic drugs and the European Information Network on Drugs and Drug Addiction have been established among the 15 States members of the European Union. As a result of that initiative, new ATS have been recommended for control in the European Union. Some Governments also reported on their cooperation and exchange of information with international organizations, in particular with the Board and with other competent authorities as an ongoing important mechanism to detect and identify new forms of ATS and their precursors.

212. Several States have increased their penal sanctions for the illicit manufacture and trafficking of ATS. Less than half (42 per cent) of the Governments replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had introduced a special regime of sanctions and penalties for ATS-related offences. In several countries, national legislation has been amended and sanctions and penalties involving ATS-related offences have been introduced. In a number of countries, amending the national legislation to cover ATS was not considered necessary, since ATS were already covered by the regime of control applicable to psychotropic substances. In some States, such as Australia, Cuba and the United States, stiff penalties were meted out for ATS-related crimes, including trafficking in other chemicals or equipment used to manufacture ATS. In some cases, the recommendations of the Action Plan were already incorporated into national legislation enacted to target methamphetamine and other ATS, as in the United States. Several Governments reported having intensified law enforcement efforts against trafficking in ATS, including strengthening the capacity of the judiciary for prosecuting offenders, as in the Netherlands. Increased efforts by law

enforcement agencies in east and south-east Asia have resulted in a strong increase in seizures of ATS, notably in China, where ATS seizures rose tenfold to 16 tons in 1999. In addition, Japan, Myanmar, the Philippines and Thailand stepped up enforcement efforts, which also resulted in substantial increase in ATS seizures.

213. There was a need to improve the information available on ATS, particularly with regard to the collection of information on clandestine laboratories, manufacturing methods, the precursors used, purity levels, prices, sources and epidemiology. Less than one third of the Governments replying (31 per cent) have improved, or are in the process of improving, systems for data collection and exchange of information. National databases have been established in the majority of the reporting States. In many of the reporting States, information was exchanged, on a regular basis, between national agencies, departments and ministries and with international organizations. Several States of western Europe reported that data collection has also been improved through the early warning system for new synthetic drugs, the European Police Office (Europol) database system on seizures of Ecstasy and images of Ecstasy tablets, known as the LOGO project, and cooperation with Interpol.

214. Regional cooperation was vital. Half of the Governments (50 per cent) reported that they had adopted measures to enhance regional cooperation. The measures included multilateral exchanges of ATS-related information within the framework of organizations such as the Board, the Association of South-East Nations (ASEAN), CICAD, EMCDDA, Europol and Interpol, or through the regional meetings of Heads of National Drug Law Enforcement Agencies (HONLEA) covered by UNDCP, or directly between competent authorities of States. The momentum built through those initiatives should ultimately improve the quality of information provided by Governments in the annual reports questionnaire. In several cases, bilateral arrangements have been established between neighbouring countries for the exchange of information, mostly on intelligence and investigation patterns.

215. UNDCP has been engaged in initiatives to assist Governments in east and south-east Asia, a region confronting the illicit manufacture, trafficking and abuse of ATS and their precursors, but with a limited regional framework to meet the challenge. The Conference on Amphetamine-type Stimulants in East and South-East Asia, hosted by the Government of Japan and held in Tokyo from 24 to 27 January 2000, recommended actions to be implemented by Governments of the region and in other parts of the world to counter the increased illicit manufacture, trafficking and abuse of ATS. That initiative contributed to a landmark agreement between the ASEAN member States and China to tackle the problem, made at the meeting entitled "International Congress: In pursuit of a drug-free ASEAN 2015: Sharing the vision, leading the change", jointly convened by the Government of Thailand, ASEAN and ODCCP, and held in Bangkok from 11 to 13 October 2000. The Congress was held against a background of rising concern among ASEAN leaders about the growing drug problem in the region arising from the rapid spread of new drugs, in particular ATS. In the action plan adopted by the Congress, the Governments of ASEAN member States and China followed the example set by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, by establishing clear objectives and target dates for themselves, and agreed to strengthen their coordinated efforts in different areas of activity related to ATS.

216. At its twentieth special session, the General Assembly emphasized the importance of the expeditious exchange of information on illicit transactions involving ATS. One third of the Governments (32 per cent) replying to the biennial questionnaire reported that they had adopted national laws and regulations to improve the exchange of information between States on transactions involving ATS and to strengthen the control system for such substances and their precursors, including the application of the "know-your-client principle". The measures taken include the introduction of an import-export notification process and the requirement that customer needs be specified and end-user certificates be submitted prior to authorization of the sale of the substance.

217. Implementing the Action Plan against Illicit Manufacture, Trafficking and Abuse of Amphetamine-type Stimulants and Their Precursors is a shared responsibility. A third (31 per cent) of the States replying to the biennial questionnaire have provided assistance to other States with limited expertise in dealing with the complex technical problems posed by the illicit manufacture, trafficking and abuse of ATS. Assistance to Governments has usually consisted in the exchange of information and intelligence, training

programmes, conferences on ATS control, joint operations and controlled deliveries, transfer of technology and the dispatching of experts on ATS control.

E. Control of precursors

218. In paragraph 14 of the Political Declaration adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, Member States decided to devote particular attention to measures for the control of precursors adopted at the special session, and to establish 2008 as a target date for States to eliminate or reduce significantly the illicit manufacture, marketing and trafficking of psychotropic substances, including synthetic drugs, and the diversion of precursors. The measures adopted at the special session strengthen the framework for multilateral cooperation to prevent the diversion of precursor chemicals from legitimate commerce, as provided for in article 12 of the 1988 Convention.

219. Precursors are trafficked as widely as the illicit drugs themselves. The use of specialized brokers and the exploitation of free trade zones is common in that regard. In general, the diversion of precursors takes place in countries where control systems are deficient. Accordingly, it is essential that each country establish an effective, flexible system that regulates the flow of key precursor chemicals, without undue burdens on legitimate commerce.

220. The General Assembly noted the progress made by the Board in developing practical guidelines for use by national authorities in preventing the diversion of precursors and essential chemicals. The Board has over the years made a number of recommendations for action by Governments to prevent the diversion of substances listed in Tables I and II of the 1988 Convention. In particular, the report of the Board for 1988[25] on the implementation of article 12 of the 1988 Convention contains a summary of such recommendations, which were endorsed by the Commission and adopted by the Council. The Board reports annually to the Commission on the implementation of the provisions of article 12 of the 1988 Convention, and continues to play a central role in the implementation of the measures adopted by the General Assembly for the control of precursors. For the international control of precursors to be effective, Governments should implement the recommendations of the Board for the control of precursors, which include the control of intermediaries.

221. UNDCP has worked in close consultation with the Board on precursor control projects in south-east Asia and in central, south and south-west Asia, assisting in setting up control and cooperation mechanisms at the regional level. In that regard, UNDCP and the Board jointly organized the Precursor Control Legislative Awareness Regional Conference, held in Colombo in July 1998, as part of the UNDCP regional project on precursor control for south and south-west Asia. The meeting raised awareness of precursors and promoted the updating and harmonization of related laws and regulations. UNDCP technical assistance programmes in the field of precursor control have increased knowledge of the latest trends in the trafficking of precursors chemicals.

222. A large number of the Governments responding to the biennial questionnaire (77 per cent) indicated that they had adopted legislation for the control of precursors. More than half of the reporting States (54 per cent) indicated that they had enacted new, or revised existing, laws and regulations related to precursor control. Some Governments reported that they were in the process of reviewing pertinent legislation. However, nearly 41 per cent of the reporting States indicated that they had not enacted or revised their domestic laws or regulations for precursor control.

223. Sixty-four of the total of 81 reporting States indicated that they had established a system of prior authorization of imports and exports, without indicating the substances for which the system was set up. Such mechanisms included setting annual quotas for the import, export, manufacture and use of precursors and essential chemicals and obtaining prior authorization. Licences or permits were issued by various ministries, such as the Ministry of Health in Mexico, for imports or exports of precursors listed in Table I of the 1988 Convention, and notifications were requested five days in advance of the date on which the operation was to be carried out.

224. Pre-export notices or inquiries concerning individual transactions have enabled the competent authorities of importing countries to verify the legitimacy of those transactions and to identify suspicious shipments, thus preventing diversions. The

number of Governments that regularly send pre-export notices or inquiries concerning the legitimacy of individual transactions has increased continuously. In its report for 1999[26] on the implementation of article 12 of the 1988 Convention, the Board noted with satisfaction that an increasing number of authorities in major trans-shipment points, such as Singapore and the United Arab Emirates, have joined other major exporting countries or trans-shipment points, such as Belgium, China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China (SAR), the Czech Republic, Germany, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States, which had already introduced such mechanisms.

225. For pre-export notices to be effective in preventing diversion, timely feedback should be given by the importing countries concerned, confirming that they have no objection to the transaction in question; if otherwise, the authorities of the exporting countries should be requested to take appropriate action. The Board has noted that the number of Governments in importing countries establishing import controls and providing such feedback has risen. Here too progress has been noticeable, although there remains scope for improvement.

226. Governments were requested to report on established working procedures for monitoring and identifying suspicious transactions involving precursors. A large number (65 per cent) of Governments replied positively, citing examples of working procedures. The latter included: the development of education and training programmes for personnel of companies manufacturing precursor chemicals; use of controlled deliveries and undercover operations; a voluntary programme of cooperation with the chemical industry; prior registration of every importer and/or exporter of precursors; reporting to the competent authorities of importers or exporters involved in suspicious transactions; periodic reports by importers on the status of their stocks and on movements in controlled substances and precursors; a system of issuing "No Objection Certificates" for the import and export of selected precursor chemicals; investigation and prosecution of violations of regulations on controlled substances and pharmaceutical products; screening of all applications for export licences; reporting of unusual or excessive losses or disappearances of listed chemicals; and regulated procedures connected with the import, export and domestic marketing of precursors.

227. A number of reporting Governments (30 per cent) replied that they had established a code of conduct to enhance cooperation with the chemical industry. Some Governments reported that such cooperation was elaborated in the form of memoranda of understanding with the chemical and pharmaceutical industries and the competent authorities. Some other States were in the process of preparing codes of conduct.

228. Governments were requested to report on whether measures had been taken to introduce the know-your-client principle, including measures such as an obligation to provide or request end-user certificates. Forty-one Governments, half of those replying to the questionnaire, indicated that they had taken such measures.

229. More than half (59 per cent) of the reporting Governments have introduced specific measures, including sanctions, by amending or revising existing legislation or adopting new laws, regulations or working procedures to prevent the diversion of precursors. In Pakistan, acetic anhydride was placed on a restricted list for the purpose of import; the same control regime as that applied to narcotic drugs was applicable to acetic anhydride and acetone. In India, acetic anhydride, *N*-acetylanthranilic acid, ephedrine and pseudoephedrine have been declared as controlled substances with mandatory controls over their manufacture, distribution and transport. In Cape Verde, there were plans to adopt civil, penal and administrative measures to punish illegal activities of individuals or corporations involved in the diversion of precursors. Examples of specific measures and sanctions introduced by other States to control precursors included, inter alia: the use of controlled deliveries; the cancellation of certificates; judicial actions against enterprises; the imposition of fines and investigations; pre-export and pre-import notifications or import and export permits; the establishment of quotas and strict control systems; sanctions including stopping, suspending or seizing suspicious shipments of precursors; and a "letter-of-no-objection" procedure to authorize imports of chemicals.

230. The General Assembly at its twentieth special session recommended several measures to Member States to improve mechanisms and procedures for monitoring trade in precursors. Those measures

included the regular exchange of information between exporting, importing and transit States, and with the Board, on exports of precursors before they take place.

231. Sixty-eight per cent of the reporting Governments (55 States) indicated that they had invoked article 12, paragraph 10, of the 1988 Convention, requesting prior notice of export for substances in Table I. However, only forty-two States have so far notified the Secretary-General that they had invoked article 12, paragraph 10, of the 1988 Convention. That implies that, for the additional 12 States, the system of prior notice of exports, in practical terms, cannot be applied. Several Governments have, in addition to those requirements, introduced pre-export notifications for acetic anhydride, potassium permanganate and other substances in Table II of the 1988 Convention. Colombia has reiterated the need for prior notification of exports of chemicals, due to the failure of certain producer and transit countries to comply with this procedure.

232. Governments were asked to report whether their law enforcement authorities had put in place procedures to investigate diversions of chemicals and clandestine laboratories, including procedures for sharing information on findings of investigations and for liaison with industry. More than half of the Governments (53 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that law enforcement measures had been adopted. It is, however, difficult to gauge the effectiveness of such measures. The following steps have been taken: the establishment of intelligence databases; special provisions for prosecution in case of diversion of precursors; setting up various systems for the exchange and sharing of information; liaison with the chemical industry; and introducing procedures for investigating diversion of chemicals and reporting of suspicious transactions.

233. At the regional level, CICAD is implementing the Inter-American Drug Control Telecommunications Network, a computer- and radio-based network that allows direct and timely communication between participating agencies for the exchange of information regarding the movement of illicit drugs and their precursor chemicals along the border areas of seven South American countries, namely Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela. A second initiative concerned the Regional Andean Counter-Drug Intelligence School, based in Lima, an example of regional cooperation initiated by the States of the region, inaugurated on 14 December 1999. The School will enhance the capacity of law enforcement agencies in the region in countering drug trafficking.

234. With regard to the adoption of procedures to identify and report the use of substitute chemicals in, and new methods of, illicit drug manufacture, 48 per cent of the Governments replying to the questionnaire indicated that no action had been taken. Only 35 per cent of the States reported that action had been taken, including: liaison among law enforcement agencies and annual exchange of information on substances frequently used in the manufacture of illicit drugs; laboratory analysis for identification of substitute chemicals; exchange of information; establishing a special surveillance list; reporting on the use of substitute chemicals to the Board; operations by security agencies to seize illicit chemicals; and monitoring of trends in the illicit manufacture of controlled substances by analysing and identifying chemicals seized at clandestine laboratories.

235. Only 28 per cent of the States reported that seizures were made as a direct result of cooperation with other Governments in the control of precursors. However, 56 per cent of the replies indicated that such was not the case, reflecting the need for renewed efforts to foster cooperation, in particular the exchange of information related to suspicious transactions between competent authorities. It was reported that, in Japan, no case involving the illicit manufacture of drugs had been found during the last two decades. At the international level, the landmark event was the successful seizure of essential chemicals and precursors, such as potassium permanganate, during the international tracking programme known as Operation Purple, through controlled deliveries and interception of illegal shipments, as a direct result of cooperation among Governments. Cross-border cooperation with third countries as well as collaboration among law enforcement institutions also proved to be successful and resulted in seizures.

236. The directory of competent authorities established pursuant to article 12 of the 1988 Convention, compiled by the Board and published by the United Nations, should be used as a practical tool for cooperation in the control of precursors. The Council, in its resolution 1992/29 of 30 July 1992, urged States to ensure that the competent authorities, in considering

applications for export authorizations, take steps to verify the legitimacy of transactions, in consultation with their counterparts in importing countries. Experience has shown that direct contact is often the most expeditious means of identifying and stopping suspicious transactions involving scheduled substances, leading to their eventual seizure, where appropriate. Governments should, however, ensure that information on the competent authorities is regularly updated.

237. Governments were asked to report on whether resources for technical assistance in precursor control had been provided to other States. To enhance cooperation, 21 per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had provided technical assistance to other States in the field of precursor control. Examples of such assistance included: international seminars and workshops focusing on the preliminary identification of controlled substances; joint action for monitoring chemicals; countering drug trafficking at the frontiers; field exercises involving the auditing of companies handling precursors; provision of training in the field of precursors to enforcement officers in the context of the Poland-Hungary Aid for the Reconstruction of the Economy (PHARE) programme in central Europe; police and customs cooperation; and training assistance programmes focusing on countries in Latin America and south-east Asia.

1. Operation purple: monitoring potassium permanganate

238. To deny cocaine traffickers access to potassium permanganate, in line with the measures for precursor control adopted at the twentieth special session, 23 Governments and three international bodies took the initiative in 1999 to systematically track individual shipments of potassium permanganate, a key chemical used in the illicit manufacture of cocaine, from the manufacturing country to the country of final destination. The international tracking programme for potassium permanganate, known as Operation Purple, required stringent monitoring and tracking of all consignments greater than 100 kilograms from the manufacturing country, through all trans-shipment points to the end-user. It included scrutinizing all operators handling the transactions and informing all relevant counterparts of suspicious transactions or stopped shipments.

239. Operation Purple is one of the most successful operations undertaken so far within the framework of international precursor control. Almost 8,000 tons of potassium permanganate were tracked, and 32 shipments totalling 2,200 tons were stopped at the source or seized by the importing country. One of the main achievements was the real-time information exchange and the integration of the activities of law enforcement and regulatory authorities, including licensing authorities and chemical industries of 23 countries and three international bodies, in tracking individual shipments and in investigating the legitimacy of the operators involved. Operation Purple has demonstrated that tracking of individual shipments is feasible for commonly used chemicals, such as potassium permanganate, and not only for substances that might have more limited licit uses.

240. In view of the success of Operation Purple, participants have extended the initiative for an unspecified period of time, in a slightly modified manner. Phase 2 of the operations, with additional participating countries invited to collaborate, started in January 2000.

241. A number of actions not directly related to Operation Purple were taken by regulatory authorities to strengthen controls over potassium permanganate. For example, the Governments of Colombia and Peru have initiated studies to determine legitimate needs for potassium permanganate in their countries. The competent authorities of Colombia have also cancelled import permits for certain companies previously authorized to import that substance, and considerably reduced the quotas of remaining firms authorized to import potassium permanganate. The authorities of Guatemala have established an annual quota for imports of potassium permanganate, and the Governments of Brazil and Venezuela have enacted national action plans to prevent diversion of the substance.[27]

242. The Government of Colombia organized and hosted an International Training Seminar about Control Mechanisms, held in Bogotá in June 1999, to prevent smuggling and diversion of potassium permanganate. The main objective of the Seminar was to bring together the countries in which illicit manufacture of cocaine occurs in the subregion, and to consider a common strategy to prevent diversion and smuggling of potassium permanganate. The increased attention given to potassium permanganate in response to the

measures adopted at the twentieth special session and, more specifically, because of Operation Purple has resulted in the prevention of large amounts of that substance from being diverted to the illicit manufacture of cocaine.

243. Large seizures of other substances listed in Table II of the 1988 Convention and used in the illicit manufacture of cocaine continue to be reported in the Andean region. Colombia, in particular, reported its largest-ever seizures of acetone, sulphuric acid and toluene, in addition to potassium permanganate. The Government of Venezuela has identified front companies established for the sole purpose of obtaining the chemicals required in the illicit manufacture of cocaine.

2. Operation Topaz: monitoring acetic anhydride

244. In response to the measures to control precursors adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session and the success of Operation Purple, an initiative to establish a similar global programme to prevent diversion of acetic anhydride, a chemical used in the illicit manufacture of heroin, has been launched. The initiative, called Operation Topaz, was launched at a meeting hosted by the Government of Turkey at Antalya in October 2000. The meeting was attended by countries that are major manufacturers and traders of ATS, that have seized acetic anhydride, and that are located in areas where illicit manufacture of heroin takes place. Operation Topaz is conceived as an intensive global programme involving law enforcement and regulatory authorities, similar to Operation Purple for potassium permanganate. In addition to tracking consignments of acetic anhydride that are part of international trade, the programme will promote the investigation of illicit laboratory activity and smuggling of acetic anhydride, with a view to identifying and preventing diversions from manufacture and domestic distribution channels.

245. Since the special session, Member States have paid increased attention to acetic anhydride. The annual seizures of acetic anhydride, reported to the Board for 1998 were the highest ever, with over 155 tons being seized.

3. Transfer of acetic anhydride and potassium permanganate from Table II to Table I of the 1988 Convention

246. The Council, in its resolution 1999/31 of 28 July 1999, in recognizing the proposals put forward in the Lucknow Accord on the Adoption of Uniform Measures to Control International Trade in Precursors and Other Chemicals Used in the Illicit Manufacture of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances, requested the Board to consider the necessary measures, in accordance with article 12 of the 1988 Convention, for the transfer of acetic anhydride and potassium permanganate from Table II to Table I of the 1988 Convention. The Subcommission on Illicit Drug Traffic and Related Matters in the Near and Middle East, in its resolution 35/1, adopted at its thirty-fifth session, held in Antalya, Turkey, in June 2000, endorsed measures to control acetic anhydride. Following its review of the two substances, the Board concluded that the information available required the transfer of the two substances from Table II to Table I of the Convention. The Commission will consider the recommendations of the Board at its forty-fourth session in March 2001.

4. Ephedrine, pseudoephedrine and norephedrine

247. The abuse and illicit manufacture of methamphetamine continues in east and south-east Asia, North America and western Europe. Some States are controlling international trade in and domestic distribution of pharmaceutical preparations containing ephedrine and pseudoephedrine, which traffickers increasingly use as a precursor in the illicit manufacture of methamphetamine. Those include India, which is tightly monitoring exports of all pharmaceutical products containing ephedrine or pseudoephedrine, and Australia, Costa Rica, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Mexico, Nigeria, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the United States, which have introduced import controls for some of those products.

248. While the mechanisms introduced in south and south-east Asia have been successful in identifying and stopping attempted diversions of ephedrine and pseudoephedrine, large seizures of ephedrine used in the illicit manufacture of methamphetamine in that region continue to be reported to the Board. For example, over 80 per cent of the global seizures of ephedrine reported for 1998 were made in south and

south-east Asia, with China seizing over 5 tons, Myanmar over 4 tons, and India over 1 ton. In the United States, over 18 tons of pseudoephedrine were seized in 1998.

249. Norephedrine is used in the illicit manufacture of amphetamine, in response to difficulties in obtaining ephedrine and pseudoephedrine for the manufacture of methamphetamine, particularly in North America. The Commission, at its forty-third session, acting on the recommendation of the Board, decided to include norephedrine in Table I of the 1988 Convention. As noted by the Board in its 1999 report on the implementation of article 12 of the 1988 Convention, the competent authorities in a number of States and territories, including Argentina, Bahamas, Canada, Colombia, Hong Kong SAR of China, Mexico, Peru, Saudi Arabia, the United States and Uruguay, have already taken steps to control the substance.

5. International cooperation in precursor control

250. Traffickers often use complicated routing, including the trans-shipment of chemicals that they wish to divert through third countries to disguise their final destination. To improve the effectiveness of precursor control, Governments should monitor all shipments of scheduled chemicals regardless of the destination, and not only those destined to regions where illicit manufacture of drugs is known to take place, in order to avoid loopholes in the monitoring system. Intermediaries can play a vital role not only in the diversion of those substances, but also in the detection of diversion attempts.

251. As noted by the General Assembly in the measures on the control of precursors adopted at its twentieth special session, the rapid and timely exchange of information between importing and exporting States is the key to effective precursor control, allowing States to verify the legitimacy of individual transactions and identify suspicious consignments of precursors. It is frequently the quick exchange of information between the competent authorities that enable them to identify suspicious transactions.

252. Controlled deliveries have led, in most cases, to the uncovering of laboratories for the illicit manufacture of drugs and to the identification and arrest of traffickers involved in the diversion of precursors. Where controlled deliveries may not be practicable or warranted, Governments should follow up such cases by investigating suspicious shipments that have been identified.

253. The recognition of the importance of precursor control has led the competent authorities and international and regional organizations to undertake various initiatives, in particular the organization of meetings and forums to address the issue. Participating in all the initiatives has been very taxing to several authorities. In order to optimize the resources available at the national, regional and international levels and ensure a coordinated effort, as called for by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session, UNDCP, in consultation with the Board, should be mandated to establish a calendar of meetings or other initiatives in the field of precursors. That would prevent fragmentation, with too many ad hoc meetings organized by various authorities, and promote the integration of all new initiatives within a global framework.

254. The Internet, in addition to supplying the necessary information on how to manufacture illicit drugs, also enables traffickers to purchase the chemicals that they require via web sites of chemical suppliers, thus making detection of suspicious shipments even more difficult for the competent authorities. Governments should adopt measures to counter the use of the Internet for the illicit trade in precursors.

F. Countering money-laundering

255. The General Assembly, at its twentieth special session, recognized that the laundering of large sums of money derived from drug trafficking and other serious crime constitutes a global threat to the integrity, reliability and stability of financial and trade systems and even to the structure of government, and that countermeasures by the international community are required in order to deny safe havens to criminals. In response to that threat, Member States, in the Political Declaration adopted at the special session, undertook to make special efforts against the laundering of money derived from drug trafficking. The General Assembly further recommended that States that have not yet done so should adopt, by the year 2003, national money-laundering legislation and programmes in accordance with the relevant provisions of the 1988 Convention

and with the measures for countering money-laundering adopted at the special session.

256. On the occasion of the special session, UNDCP published a study entitled *Financial Havens, Banking Secrecy and Money-laundering*, providing a comprehensive analysis of the problems caused by the laundering of criminal proceeds in the offshore financial sector. As a follow-up, the ODCCP Global Programme against Money Laundering, at a conference held in the Cayman Islands in March 2000, with the participation of jurisdictions providing international financial services, launched the United Nations Offshore Forum, a global initiative to prevent the misuse of international financial centres for the laundering of criminal proceeds. A communiqué issued by the States and territories participating in the conference called for a global and non-discretionary approach to the adoption of internationally accepted standards of financial regulation and measures against money-laundering. By the end of 2000, 33 States and territories had made a formal commitment to join a United Nations global initiative to adopt such internationally accepted standards. Those States qualify to receive technical assistance from the United Nations in matters relating to establishing or enhancing their capacity to counter money-laundering. In that regard, a major project to establish a regional financial intelligence unit was initiated in the eastern Caribbean. The project builds on the UNDCP promotion of subregional initiatives, which, in 2000, included the organization of workshops for the States of the Persian Gulf and the Andean subregion.

257. The political will of the international community to combat money-laundering is reflected in multilateral initiatives that provide legal and policy frameworks for States to use in defining and adopting measures against money-laundering. For example, the 40 recommendations of the Financial Action Task Force on Money Laundering (FATF) are designed to develop and promote policies to combat money-laundering. The Caribbean Financial Action Task Force, consisting of 25 jurisdictions, the Asia-Pacific Group on Money Laundering, established in February 1997 and consisting of 17 members from south, south-east and east Asia and the south Pacific, the Eastern and Southern Africa Anti-Money Laundering Group, consisting of 7 jurisdictions, and the ECOWAS Intergovernmental Task Force against Money Laundering in Africa are regional bodies, similar to FATF, that have contributed to anti-money-laundering initiatives at the regional and global levels. Likewise, the Council of Europe Select Committee of Experts on the Evaluation of Anti-Money Laundering Measures has made significant progress with its mutual evaluation programmes and on-site visits. Efforts to counter money-laundering have also been supported by CICAD, which introduced a process of peer review of progress in the implementation of national money-laundering programmes by its member States and revised its model regulations on the control of money-laundering, the Basle Committee on Banking Supervision, the Offshore Group of Banking Supervisors and the Commonwealth. Important progress is being made by States and territories within the framework of the above-mentioned regional and international initiatives designed to promote and strengthen effective measures against money-laundering. States are encouraged to participate actively in such initiatives.

258. In section V of the biennial questionnaire, dealing with money-laundering, Member States were requested to report on the following matters: (a) legislative measures taken to make money-laundering a criminal offence; (b) measures taken to prevent and detect money-laundering; and (c) international cooperation as an essential tool to combat money-laundering.

1. Legislative measures

259. All parties to the 1988 Convention are required to establish money-laundering as a punishable offence and to adopt the measures necessary to enable the authorities to identify, trace and freeze or seize the proceeds of drug trafficking. Efforts have been made by a large number of States to adopt and apply domestic legislation that identifies money-laundering as a criminal offence. Most States (83 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that laundering the proceeds derived from drug trafficking and other serious crimes was a criminal offence in their jurisdictions. In many of those States (56 per cent), such legislation has led to money-laundering investigations, prosecutions or convictions in their jurisdictions. Some States (10 per cent), having only recently introduced such legislation, could not yet report on any cases involving prosecution. In some States (11 per cent), money-laundering was not considered a criminal offence. However, some were taking legislative action to remedy the situation, as in India, where a

comprehensive money-laundering bill was before parliament.

260. In several States (65 per cent of the respondents), laundering of the proceeds from other serious crimes was also a criminal offence, while such conduct was not a criminal offence in other States, as specifically indicated by 20 per cent of those replying to the questionnaire. To strengthen their ability to counter money-laundering, several States (16 per cent) were in the process of enacting new legislation or updating existing money-laundering laws and regulations. Some States without legislation to deal with laundering of the proceeds of crime indicated that they had no plans to introduce such legislation in connection with serious crimes other than drug trafficking. Increased efforts will have to be made if all States are to have national money-laundering legislation and programmes in their arsenal of penal measures by 2003, as requested in the Political Declaration adopted by the General Assembly at its twentieth special session.

261. Governments were asked to report whether their relevant authorities have statistical data on the legal action taken to combat money-laundering, including investigations, prosecutions and convictions. Fifty-one per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that they kept statistical data on the investigation of cases involving money-laundering, and a third (32 per cent) that they did not. The number of investigations varied considerably, from less than 10 in some jurisdictions to hundreds in others. Germany reported 481 preliminary investigations in 1999, and Turkey 872 investigations. Less than half (47 per cent) of the States replying to the questionnaire reported that they had statistical information on prosecutions for money-laundering offences. However, over a third (36 per cent) did not. As could be expected, the rate of reported prosecutions was lower than the number of investigations. For example, Ecuador reported investigating 511 cases, but prosecuting 39, while Greece undertook 373 investigations and 23 prosecutions. On the higher end of the scale, the United Kingdom reported 357 prosecutions and the United States 2,412. Forty-three per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that they had statistical data on convictions for money-laundering offences, whereas 36 per cent did not. Most States reported less than 10 convictions during the past year, with a few reporting only one or two.

262. States were asked to report whether their legislation provided for the freezing, seizure and confiscation of the proceeds derived from illicit drug trafficking, in line with the provisions of the 1988 Convention, and from other serious crimes. Eighty-six per cent of the States replying to the questionnaire reported that their legislation provided for the freezing, seizure and confiscation of the proceeds of illicit drug trafficking, in line with the provisions of the 1988 Convention. Some States, such as Sao Tome and Principe and Sri Lanka, reported that their legislation did not do so. Sixty-four per cent of the States reported having either frozen, seized or confiscated proceeds of drug trafficking. In a few States (9 per cent), such measures had not been taken. Many of the respondents (64 per cent) had adopted measures for the freezing, seizure or confiscation of assets for other serious crimes. Some States (11 per cent) reported that such measures were not applicable to serious crimes other than drug trafficking.

263. Of the 167 States parties to the 1988 Convention as of 1 December 2000, 105 have submitted to the Secretary-General copies of legislation that they have adopted against money-laundering, in accordance with article 5, paragraph 4 (e), of that Convention. Although the effectiveness of the legislation adopted in the various States cannot be accurately assessed, positive results may be inferred from the reported increase in the seizure and confiscation of proceeds of criminal offences, in particular drug-trafficking offences, in a number of States. Some of those States have enacted penal provisions on money-laundering and comprehensive confiscation laws. Some have also introduced mandatory reporting provisions concerning currency transactions across borders. While several States have imposed a requirement for financial institutions to report suspicious transactions, others have developed voluntary reporting systems.

264. Significant progress has been made by Governments in adopting legislation permitting the seizure of assets resulting from money-laundering. The legislation of most of the States that replied to the questionnaire (81 per cent) provided for the seizure of assets resulting from money-laundering. Many States (69 per cent) reported having either frozen, seized or confiscated proceeds of drug trafficking. The legislation in some States (5 per cent), however, did not permit the seizure of assets resulting from money-laundering.

265. Governments were invited to report whether their relevant authorities maintained statistical data on seized and confiscated proceeds as a result of legal action taken to combat money-laundering. Only one third (36 per cent) of the States replying to the questionnaire indicated that their relevant authorities maintained statistics on seized or confiscated proceeds resulting from legal action to combat money-laundering. However, many States (41 per cent) had no such information. In States with such information, large sums were seized, totalling millions of dollars.

266. Money-laundering was an extraditable offence in a large number of the responding countries (70 per cent), although different qualifications may apply in different jurisdictions. For example in Venezuela, extradition was only applicable to foreign nationals; and, in Colombia, one of the requirements for extradition was that the act should also be regarded as a crime in Colombia, punishable by at least four years' imprisonment. In some States (12 per cent), money-laundering was not an extraditable offence.

267. As to whether their national legislation establishes any requirements to declare the cross-border transport of cash and negotiable bearer instruments when they exceed a specified value, half of the States (48 per cent) replying to the questionnaire indicated that there was such a requirement for cash transactions. A third of the States (35 per cent) indicated that there was a requirement to declare negotiable bearer instruments. In other States, there was no such requirement for cash transactions (31 per cent of the replies) and negotiable bearer instruments (36 per cent of the replies). Penalties for failure to declare cash transactions ranged from fines and/or forfeiture of all or part of the value of the undisclosed sum, to imprisonment for periods of two to seven years. In some cases, the offence was criminal; in others, it was an administrative offence; and, in others, offenders were liable to summary conviction. In a number of States, cross-border transport of negotiable bearer instruments was covered under customs legislation as smuggling or a violation of foreign exchange controls.

2. Measures to prevent and detect money-laundering in financial entities

268. Governments were asked to report on measures adopted to the following ends: reporting of suspicious and/or unusual transactions; putting into practic principle of know-your-client; removing impedir to criminal investigations that are related to secrecy; enabling the identification of the bene owners of accounts; and establishing a central (finance intelligence unit) to collect and an reports and intelligence on suspected cases invo money-laundering. Many States (68 per cent) adopted measures to enable the reporting of suspi and/or unusual transactions. However, 16 per cent not. The numbers of such transactions varied w between countries. For example, Belize reported such transaction, Nigeria 20, Bolivia 35, Slovakia Japan 1,059 and the Czech Republic 4,000; and S reported 1,311 suspicious transactions and 39 unusual transactions in 1999 and the United King 14,500 such transactions in the same year. The fig may be influenced by differing requirements, tha mandatory reporting as opposed to suspicion-b reporting. Canada will be establishing a centra reporting system on suspicious transactions, w would facilitate the collection of data. Regarding principle of know-your-client, only 22 per cen States replying to the questionnaire had taken meas to put the principle into practice. Approache implementing the principle varied. For example, State Bank of Pakistan has issued regulations to re banks to make reasonable efforts to determine identity of their customers and taken related meas In the United States, while there were no fo regulations, it was the understanding that fina businesses would examine unusual or suspicious t actions to protect their reputation. In other cases, Australia, all financial entities were required to v the identity of customers who were holders o account and to report any suspicious or unusual t actions. In other countries, such as Colombia, fina institutions were required to keep records of t actions over a specified amount. Such records incl the identity, signature and address of the pe physically carrying out the transaction, the name address of the person on whose behalf it was ca out and the name of the beneficiary, as well as relevant information.

269. Bank secrecy has been one of the major obst to criminal investigations in money-launde offences. Several States (57 per cent) replying to questionnaire reported that they were remo impediments to criminal investigations related to

secrecy; some States (23 per cent) reported that they had not yet done so. Of the States that were taking such action, most reported that the legal requirement to report suspicious transactions expressly overrode any commercial confidentiality. In Chile, for example, the State Defence Council could request from the higher courts the authority to lift bank secrecy in specific cases under investigation. A related action was the adoption, by more than half of the States (56 per cent) replying to the questionnaire, of measures enabling the identification of benefiting owners of accounts, corporate bodies and other financial assets. Other States (22 per cent) had not taken measures to enable such identification.

270. Many States have established specialized agencies to deal with money-laundering. An important development was the establishment of more than 48 operational financial intelligence units worldwide, as centralized agencies that, at a minimum, receive, analyse and disclose to the competent authorities information provided by financial institutions concerning possible money-laundering and other financial crimes. Many others are in various stages of development. The units serve as a link between the law enforcement, financial and regulatory communities, providing law enforcement agencies around the world with an important new avenue for the collection and exchange of information. More than half of the States (52 per cent) replying to the questionnaire have established a central financial intelligence unit to collect and analyse reports and intelligence on suspected money-laundering cases. More effort is, however, necessary, as a third of the States (32 per cent) have not taken such steps. Some States, such as Canada, Chile and Pakistan, are in the process of establishing financial intelligence units. The Global Programme against Money Laundering has devoted much of its time to providing assistance to countries in establishing such units. That aspect of the work of the Global Programme has been undertaken in conjunction with the Egmont Group, an informal international umbrella organization for financial intelligence units. A training workshop attended by 124 officers of units around the world was held in Vienna on 10 and 11 January 2001.

271. To be effective, States should implement measures to provide for the effective investigation and prosecution of those involved in money-laundering. Over half of the States (57 per cent) replying to the questionnaire reported that they had adopted measures for the effective investigation and prosecution of money-laundering offences. However, some (15 per cent) had not. In other States, such as India and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the money-laundering legislation before Parliament included such measures. Several States referred to successful investigations and prosecutions. For example, in Australia, the National Crime Authority and a task force to combat money-laundering have identified large amounts of undeclared tax revenue and proceeds of serious crime. In Belize, a supervisory authority facilitated cooperation between financial institutions and law enforcement authorities. In Brazil, money-laundering was a separate offence and may be investigated on the basis of evidence of a predicate offence. To facilitate investigation and prosecution of money-laundering offences, the Government of Canada has established, across the country, Integrated Proceeds of Crime Units comprising representatives from the law enforcement authorities. In 1999, the United States launched the National Money Laundering Strategy, a comprehensive and integrated approach to combating money-laundering, both within the country and around the world, involving law enforcement and banking authorities.

272. A continuing challenge facing several States at the investigative, prosecution and trial phases is the lack of financial resources and trained personnel with the operational know-how required for successful asset forfeiture. Whereas in most regions, there has been consistent progress in the adoption of legislation against money-laundering, including forfeiture legislation, there has been more limited success in the prosecution of money-laundering offences resulting in the final confiscation of assets.

3. International cooperation to counter money-laundering

273. In the area of international cooperation, Governments were asked to report whether they have sent to or received from other States any requests for mutual legal assistance concerning cases of money-laundering, in particular concerning the freezing, seizure or confiscation of criminal assets. More than half of the States (56 per cent) replying to the questionnaire had sent or received requests from other States for mutual legal assistance concerning cases of money-laundering, including the freezing, seizure or confiscation of criminal assets; a third (32 per cent)

indicated that they had neither sent nor received any such requests. Of the States that had done so, the number of requests made ranged from 1 to 74, making an average of 18 requests each. On the higher end of the scale, Finland sent 175 requests in 1999, the United States sent over 200, Luxembourg sent 218 and Costa Rica sent 540. The number of requests received ranged from 1 to 90, making an average of 23 requests per country. Among those with a higher number, Mexico received 147 requests, Finland 163, Turkey 175, the Cayman Islands 192, Luxembourg 234, Costa Rica 499 and the British Virgin Islands 500. Of the requests sent, the majority were implemented. A small number of requests were declined because of a failure to meet the national legislative and evidential requirements, either for lack of funds in the targeted account, or for other unspecified reasons. It should be noted that even a low number of requests could yield significant results. For example, Lithuania reported that it had received one request, resulting in the seizure of $31 million.

274. Several States have negotiated comprehensive bilateral mutual legal assistance treaties to facilitate cooperation in criminal matters, some of which deal specifically with the tracing, freezing and confiscation of proceeds from drug trafficking and related crime. In money-laundering cases, they are essential means of obtaining banking and other financial records from parties to such treaties or arrangements. In addition, many of those instruments provide for a wide range of assistance in the investigation and prosecution of money-laundering offences. Several States have also assisted one another in money-laundering investigations on the basis of informal arrangements. Over half of the States (57 per cent) replying to the questionnaire reported that they had concluded treaties, agreements, memoranda or letters of understanding with other States with a view to exchanging financial information and/or mutual legal assistance concerning money-laundering. Some States (28 per cent) indicated that they had not entered into such agreements or arrangements. The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime created a universal system for mutual legal assistance in cases involving conspiracy and money-laundering by organized crime. That instrument, which focuses on organized crime, will further enhance international cooperation in combating money-laundering. It is the first international legal instrument to broaden the definition of money-laundering to include proceeds derived from all serious crime, being defined as crime "punishable by a maximum deprivation of liberty of at least four years or a more serious penalty". It is also the first international legal instrument to require States to establish comprehensive regulatory and supervisory regimes for banks and non-bank financial institutions. It requires such regimes to specifically address issues of customer identification, record-keeping and reporting of suspicious transactions.

Notes

[1] The following States and territories submitted replies by 8 November 2000: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belarus, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, British Virgin Islands, Bulgaria, Canada, Cape Verde, Cayman Islands, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Dominica, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Ghana, Greece, Grenada, Haiti, Hungary, Iceland, India, Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Myanmar, Namibia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Pakistan, Panama, Philippines, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Romania, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Tajikistan, Togo, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United States of America and Venezuela. After 8 November 2000, replies were received from the following States: Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Niger, Peru, Russian Federation and Saudi Arabia.

[2] *Global Illicit Drug Trends 2000*, ODCCP Studies on Drugs and Crime (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.XI.10), p. 14.

[3] Ibid., p. 16.

[4] Ibid., pp. 11 and 15.

[5] Ibid., p. 6.

[6] Statistics on production and trafficking of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances in east and south-east Asia and the Pacific (UNDCP/HONLAP/2000/CRP.1) and report of China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China and Macao Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China (UNDCP/HONLAP/2000/CRP.12).

[7] United States Office of National Drug Control Policy, *Cocaine Flow to Europe, Update 2000* (Washington, D.C., June 2000).

[8] UNDCP Country Office in Afghanistan, *Annual Opium Poppy Survey 2000* (Islamabad, 2000).

[9] *ODCCP Chronicle Afghanistan and Pakistan*, No. 1 (June 2000), pp. 10 and 11, and *Global Illicit Drug Trends 2000* ..., p. 7.

[10] "Statistics and analyses on drug-trafficking trends in the region, 1990-1999" (UNDCP/SUBCOM/2000/CRP.1), pp. 9-11.

[11] Ibid., p. 9.

[12] *Report of the International Narcotics Control Board for 1999* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.XI.1), para. 333.

[13] Report of China, Hong Kong SAR of China and Macao SAR of China (UNDCP/HONLAP/2000/CRP.12), p. 2.

[14] Australian Bureau of Criminal Intelligence, *Australian Illicit Drug Report 1998-1999* (Canberra, March 2000).

[15] *Official Records of the United Nations Conference for the Adoption of a Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances, Vienna, 25 November-20 December 1988*, vol. I (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.94.XI.5).

[16] *Global Illicit Drug Trends 2000* ..., p. 7, and "Statistics on production and trafficking of narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances in the American region" (UNDCP/HONLAC/2000/CRP.1), p. 7.

[17] UNDCP Regional Office for the Caribbean, *Drug Control Trends in the Caribbean 1998-1999* (Bridgetown, 1999), p. 1.

[18] Ibid.

[19] European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction, *2000 Annual Report on the State of the Drugs Problem in the European Union* (Lisbon, 2000).

[20] See "Country report by the United States" (UNDCP/SUBCOM/2000/CRP.4).

[21] United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 1019, No. 14956.

[22] The process is reflected in recently adopted national strategies of France, Germany, Portugal, Spain, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America and in the European Union Drugs Strategy (2000-2004) approved by the European Council at its meeting in Helsinki in December 1999.

[23] United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 520, No. 7515.

[24] Ibid. vol. 976, No. 14152.

[25] See *Precursors and Chemicals Frequently Used in the Illicit Manufacture of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances: Report of the International Narcotics Control Board for 1998 on the Implementation of Article 12 of the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.99.XI.4).

[26] See *Precursors and Chemicals Frequently Used in the Illicit Manufacture of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances: Report of the International Narcotics Control Board for 1999 on the Implementation of Article 12 of the United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances of 1988* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.XI.3).

[27] Ibid.